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Preface

EACH year the Department of Elementary School Principals receives a large number of unsolicited manuscripts. Some of these articles appear in the miscellaneous issues of the Department's journal, *The National Elementary Principal.* Others, if they are appropriate, are used in the theme issues of the journal. Nevertheless, the journal is a comparatively small outlet for so great a number of manuscripts, and many fine articles must be returned to their authors simply for lack of space.

In order to accommodate these manuscripts and bring them to the attention of its members, the Department decided to put together this collection of *Selected Articles for Elementary School Principals.* The collection is not by any means intended to be a comprehensive volume on the principalship. The size of the book alone will warn the reader of this. Instead articles have been grouped around a number of the more prominent concerns of principals: in-service education, teacher evaluation, guidance, school-community relations, discipline—among others. In some sections, reprints of particularly good articles from *The National Elementary Principal* have been included to provide greater breadth or to cover another aspect of a topic. In all sections, the articles offer valuable insights and new approaches to many of the perennial concerns of principals. DESP is pleased to add this volume to its publication list.

1/2

The Principalship

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND THE "SUPERCITY"

ROBERT G. OWENS

AMERICA now has an urban society and, having turned the corner from a predominantly small-town and rural way of life, it will inevitably become increasingly a nation of city-dwellers.[1] The population of rural areas and small towns is dropping while that of the inner portion of cities and that of the suburbs is on the increase. This seems to mean that the great bulk of the American people will soon be living in the giant supercities that are now developing around the crowded metropolitan areas to which our people are gravitating so rapidly. That this trend is real and will continue is attested to by the simple fact that about three-fourths of our people *already* live in the metropolitan areas clustered around (and including) our great cities. Predictions concerning the future levels and distribution of our population abound, but an estimate that seems reasonable is that in the year 2000, five out of six of America's then 250 million people will be living in cities and towns covering about 2 per cent of the nation's land area.[2] Such predictions, which seem now to be highly reasonable, underscore the more than likelihood that Americans of that future day will be largely dwellers of giant urban complexes which Roger Revelle envisions as being ". . . cities of monstrous size, unlike anything the world has ever seen."[3]

The urban problems that face us today are enormous and frequently seem to defy solution. The circulation of people within the urban areas, as well as the problem of transporting them in and out of the central core of each area, needs urgent attention. The need for adequate housing, pure water, and clean air for the swelling populations of crowded urban areas is increasingly difficult to assure. Eliminating and avoiding slums, controlling crime and conflict in urban conditions, slowing the rise of taxes in the cities, providing for full employment of the residents—these are merely representative of problems that must be solved as our grim "inner cities" grow and their inseparable satellite "bedroom communities" grow with them. It is highly possible, however, that no set of problems is in more urgent need of attack in our burgeoning metropolitan complexes than the problem of providing for education. The language of a report prepared for a committee of the United States Senate is revealing in this connection. In sketching a "profile of America in the mid-1960's," the report looks, in part, at "the school-centered society" and issues what it labels "a three-alarm alert" on school population.[4] "In 1985," the report states with obvious apprehension, "there will be over 100 million people

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between 5 and 24 years of age. The occupation for most of them will be 'student'!"

The size of the pupil population is not the only complicating problem in providing urban education in the future. The racial composition of our burgeoning supercity populations is of great practical concern to the school administrator. One trend affecting this is the movement of families with school-age children, who can afford to go from the inner-city schools to the suburbs or to nonpublic schools. For example, right now in Philadelphia, 40 per cent of the total school population is in nonpublic schools, and this is only indicative of a trend. By and large, it is the white children who are leaving public schools in Philadelphia. One observer of this trend, Philadelphia's Board of Education Chairman Richardson Dilworth, predicts that in 20 or 25 years all large American cities will find nearly all nonwhites in public schools and nearly all whites in nonpublic schools. Many will agree with his reaction to this possibility: "I cannot think of a greater blow to our democracy, or to the success of the urban civilization in which we find ourselves." [5]

Buffalo's population has shrunk from 580,132 in 1950 to less than 500,000 today. During that time the Negro population increased by about 34,000, while the white population decreased by about 83,000.[6] Cleveland's history is similar, only the shifts are more pronounced. Between 1930 and 1960, Cleveland's white population went down by 205,588, while its Negro population increased by 178,919. The city's over-all population declined while its racial composition shifted toward an increase in the proportion of Negroes to whites.[7] The story is the same in Cincinnati, in Rochester, and in city after city. Substantial numbers of the out-migrating whites moved to the suburbs which ring the core city like a doughnut. Because Negro populations contain higher percentages of children than do white populations, the effect is seen early in the schools. If the present trend is continued, the aforementioned cities and a number of others will be predominantly Negro in a few years, roughly between 1975 and 2025. In 1966-67, New York City's school population became predominantly nonwhite for the first time, with 50.2 per cent of the October enrolment being Negro or Puerto Rican and the remainder ("other") being white, Asian, Indian, and so on.[8]

The enormity of the problem—in terms of size, racial and cultural pressures, and other factors of life in large urban communities—has led respected and informed observers to raise the gloomy question: *Can the urban schools be managed?* It is not a rhetorical question.

One may be tempted to say, "Of course! They simply *must* be managed!" Yet, this was the very topic to which Dean H. Thomas James addressed himself at the 1965 White House Conference on Education.[9] The problems of administering education in our present-day big cities—crowded, noisy, strife-torn, nerve-jangling—sometimes give rise to serious consideration of just that awful possibility: maybe the challenge is so great that we cannot achieve the purposes for which the schools are operated. Former Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare John Gardner views the problem in the context of a larger and even more dramatic problem: "Whether urban schools can be managed," he declares, "is tied in to whether cities can be managed. The gravest problems facing education today are in the cities. . . ." [10] The dimensions of the problem, which underscore its seriousness and give it a sense of great urgency, seem to set it apart from the run-of-the-mill variety: this is no ordinary need for improvement. If we face the awful possibility that management of large urban school systems may be slipping from our grasp, it seems evident that new and more effective ways of coping with the possibility are urgently needed. Even now we hear of the desperate need to "rescue" the inner-city school.[11]

A possible rescue technique that is being suggested with increasing frequency is to turn to the creation of metropolitan education authorities to deal not only with education in the city but also in the suburban satellite doughnut which surrounds the city.[12] A tentative step in this direction may be seen in the Hartford, Connecticut, metropolitan area where eight suburban bedroom communities are now integrating very limited numbers of the city's Negro children into their schools on what is described as an "experimental" basis. From the administrator's point of view, however, such plans magnify the management complications and, unless these can be solved, they may only spread the threat of disintegration of our present organizations.

Another rescue technique under widespread consideration is the creation of educational parks.[13] In New York City, for example, a number of these are in various stages of planning and consideration. Educational parks in supercities—at least in New York—will be giant complexes, each serving thousands of children from the earliest grades through the highest. The challenge to administer such huge and complex units is without precedent, and it is staggering to ponder how such units can be operated as healthy, humane, and wholesome educational environments for children. But new and effective innovations *are* needed to end the present plight of education in the cities. As these innovations emerge—if they are to succeed—they will demand administrators with the skills, the sensitivity, and the adaptability to run them well. Where will such school administrators come from? Clearly, our universities are in a position of responsibility here. The responsibility includes the preparation of inexperienced, newly entering administrators so that they are ready to meet the demands of the future rather than the past. The responsibility also includes the mid-career development of experienced administrators in service to help them meet new demands that were never dreamed of when they were prepared for their present posts. What are our universities doing to prepare people to administer the school programs in our giant supercities a few years from now? There have been some stirrings, but some major challenges seem to be going unanswered.

The "New Ferment" in Educational Administration

There is a so-called "new ferment" in educational administration, which has had great impact on doctoral level programs in a number of universities throughout this country and Canada.[14] In general, the "new ferment" is characterized by these ideas:

- Administration is a process that can be identified, studied, taught, and practiced separately from the technical activities being administered.
- Knowledge and methods of the behavioral sciences and humanities are useful for the insights they give us about schools as they are, rather than as someone thinks they ought to be.

- Research into problems of school administration should deal with theoretical notions that lead to broadly applicable concepts.
- Change and innovation should be facilitated.

While there have been uneasy murmurs from time to time during the past decade questioning how much impact the "new ferment" in educational administration has actually had on schools or on university professors for that matter, the fact is that the developments which characterize the movement have been promising. Research in educational administration, including research reported in doctoral theses, is better. The "nuts and bolts" of running schools has been put into perspective. Administrators are encouraged to develop greater sensitivity to and perception of organizational problems by learning from the example of business, industry, and the military where the use of the behavioral science approach to organizational and administrative problems is old hat. A limited but vitally important body of research literature is now abuilding which seems to promise that significant breakthroughs in knowledge basic to the better administration of education are still to come. Some very important research developments in such areas as leadership, decision making, and administrator behavior are already affecting events in the schools. Yet, it cannot be emphasized too strongly that very little of what has been done in the so-called "new movement" in educational administration has had any discernible effect on big-city schools.

Generally speaking, indeed almost universally, university programs in educational administration have been oriented to meeting the needs of administrators in smaller cities and suburban school districts. Yet, there is an urgent need to develop more effective university programs for preparing highly capable school administrators of big-city schools both now and in the future. No attempt will be made in this article, of course, to prescribe the content and format of such programs. Their development must follow recognition of the problems for which students are to be prepared. A few of the ways in which the needs of students preparing for school administration in our cities should differ from the needs of students who are preparing for the more numerous and more "typical" smaller school districts might serve to illuminate the direction that must be explored in preparing to meet the challenge posed by the giant cities of today and the future.

Emphasis must be on the "middle management" level of administration. Present-day university programs of educational administration frequently place considerable emphasis on preparing candidates for the superintendency. Indeed, one informal gauge of the prestige of graduate programs of study in educational administration is the degree of success that graduates have in securing employment as superintendents. Their ability to advance to larger and better-paying superintendencies as they move from school district to school district over the years is frequently viewed—by professors and students alike—as evidence of the effectiveness of the university's program of study in educational administration. Students who aspire only to the principalship are commonly viewed as lacking in drive and ambition. Too often, those who "settle" for employment as principals are made to feel as though they had received a consolation prize. At best, the principalship is viewed as a "steppingstone" to future success. Our growing urban centers have a different need for school administrators. The pressing need is for people to fill what may be described as "middle-management" positions: principals, assistant principals, department chairmen, and comparable positions. While there will always be an indisputable need for imaginative and well-prepared superintendents and other "top level" administrators in our big cities, the tactical importance of highly able administrators at the school building level is crucial. The big-city school district organization is characterized not only by its great size but also by being highly bureaucratized, complex, sharply pyramidal. It exists in an ecological setting that is, in many ways, threatening. At best, our large urban school districts today are very difficult places in which to run good schools. The capability of the building level administrator is vital in implementing the plans, the programs, and the leadership coming down through the hierarchy.

In this kind of situation, there is urgent need for university programs of educational administration to prepare adequate numbers of building administrators with the capability not only to meet present challenges but also those of the future. Characteristically, these administrators will rarely leave their city to move to another job in another district and, by the very nature of the pyramidal organization, promotion to top-level posts will not be universal. When it does come, promotion for the urban building principal is often at a time when he is well along in his career. Graduate programs of study in educational administration for these positions, then, should be geared to the realities of career development that the people in them are likely to encounter.

The patterns of recruitment, appointment, and promotion are much different in big-city school systems from those in more "typical" systems. A common problem in recruiting administrators for big-city schools is inbreeding which emphasizes a markedly provincial approach. In New York City, for example, the route to the principalship is not through university training. After taking a couple of courses in administration to legally "qualify" him to take the necessary examination, the aspirant usually seeks coaching so that he can pass the examination. A typical coaching course (and this is an actual illustration) has an enrolment of 400 and is run by three school principals. The fee is $300 a person. The group meets one evening a week for one year at the Brooklyn Academy of Music. At each session a lecture is given, and mimeographed "handouts" are distributed. Questions are not permitted because they are "diverting." What is taught is strictly the content and the techniques for taking the licensing examination. Heavy emphasis is given to memorizing initials as guides to recalling the examination content required on cue. When objectives of education are mentioned, for example, many New York teachers who are preparing for their licensing examination think: "COHETKASE." And what is COHETKASE? It is simply the acronym by which one recalls the objectives of education for examination purposes:

Character
Our American heritage

Health—mental and physical
Exploration
Thinking
Knowledge and skill
Appreciation and expression
Social skills
Economic relations

By the time a candidate feels ready to take the assistant principal's examination in New York City, he has acquired a good handful of index cards with similar items on them which he memorizes to help him through various parts of the examination. This is an essential and substantial part of the training through which New York City school administrators must pass to secure appointment. This is done not once but several times as the individual seeks to go up the ladder by examination from teacher to, perhaps, counselor, supervisor, assistant principal, and principal. It is a long process and it leaves its mark.

Because the process is a long one, the big-city principal is appointed relatively late in his career; typically, some years after his contact with university courses in administration. His career advancement is often not dependent upon his graduate studies, and this affects his attitude toward continuing them after his initial appointment. If the university sees an obligation to serve in this area, it faces new types of problems in motivating students in graduate programs who do not anticipate being "placed" in better jobs after completing their studies.

Professors who understand big-city problems should be included in the faculty. Too frequently, professors of educational administration do not come from cities, and they do not like them. Cities are difficult and frustrating places for them to work in, and the professor does not loom as large in a big city as in a suburban community. Not infrequently, the professor tries to transplant the values and practices of his suburban background to the city, with less than spectacular results. Finding a professor of educational administration who genuinely likes a big city, who feels comfortable in it, and yet who is cosmopolitan enough to be critically perceptive and challenging of the *status quo* is a difficult task. As a result, it should be an early priority for universities to develop such people to staff their own programs.

Relevant research must be included in the university program of educational administration. One of the encouraging "new" developments in educational administration has been the building of a substantial body of high-quality research on organizational behavior, communication, decision making, and the like. However, it is difficult to do good research of a behavioral nature in a large and complex organization. Consequently, most of the research now available to educational administration is based on work done in smaller communities. When a study is reported as having been done in a city, we hear all too often of populations on the order of 50,000. As an illustration, we can use Halpin's development of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire.[15] This was, of course, an outstanding pioneering study which has been very fruitful. It was, however, based on schools that were not representative of large cities. A number of climate studies using Halpin's

OCD Questionnaire have been reported, but few of them involve big-city schools. Nevertheless, there is enough OCDQ data from cities to show that city elementary schools tend to have very "closed" organizational climates,[16] which Halpin defines as bad. Is it bad? Should cities have closed-climate schools? Why do city schools have closed climates? Can the situation be changed? Should we try to make the climate of big-city schools more "open"? These are merely a few of the questions that come to mind almost at once, and we have very few leads to answers.

It is this way with a great deal of the research that has become so much a part of the "New Movement" in educational administration. Much of it has been done outside of the big-city environment and its generalizeability to that environment must remain highly tentative until more research in the big-city schools is carried out. There is good reason to suspect that reality in the big city is significantly different from suburbia in many ways. The discovery and development of improved knowledge about what is real in the world of the big-city school administrator is another matter that university programs in educational administration would do well to give a high priority.

Life in the city of today and the supercity of the future should be pleasant, rich, rewarding. Schools in the cities and supercities should also be pleasant as well as educationally effective. To think of our growing urban centers and their schools in lesser terms is to condemn an increasing number and proportion of our people to a bleak prospect. The process of attaining these goals is complicated and made difficult by such rapid social and demographic changes as population mobility, shifting housing patterns, and changing economic patterns. It seems certain, however, that cities, supercities, and metropolitan areas will grow bigger and more difficult to manage. School organizations seem destined also to grow bigger and more difficult to manage well. The apparent inevitability of this growth, combined with the critical nature of problems already at hand in city schools, points to a need for universities to make a renewed commitment to the education and reeducation of school administrators specifically for the demand of urban communities.

Programs designed for the preparation of urban school administrators should take cognizance of four dimensions of reality that are not generally accepted at the present time:

1. The cities need administrators specifically prepared for the operation of buildings and units (such as educational parks) rather than the superintendency.
2. The career pattern of the big-city school administrator typically is quite different from that of the suburban administrator. The way he gets his job and develops his career is geared to the realities of organizational life in the big city. The hope of getting the university's help in "placement" is of negligible motivational value to the student who plans a career in the big city.
3. There is a need for professors of educational administration who understand big cities and genuinely like them.

4. There is a need for research on educational administration in the big-city setting. The published research on educational administration has been done, almost uniformly, in smaller communities. Occasional studies appear purporting to have been done in cities. However, all too often we find them being described as "medium-sized" cities. This is not to denigrate the importance of solving the educational problems of a Syracuse or a New Haven but merely to state that the ***situation*** in such communities is so unlike that of a New York or a Chicago or a Los Angeles as to make it almost irrelevant to the people in the giant communities.

FOOTNOTES

1. Republican Policy Committee, United States Senate. *Where the Votes Are.* Senate Document No. 106, 89th Congress, 2d Session, 1966. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1966. p. ii.

2. American Association of School Administrators. *Your AASA in 1965-66.* Official Report. Washington, D. C.: the Association, a department of the National Education Association. p. 127.

3. See footnote 2, p. 128.

4. See footnote 1, p. 15.

5. National School Public Relations Association. *Education U.S.A.*, April 21, 1966. Washington, D. C.: the Association, a department of the National Education Association. p. 162.

6. Glatt, Charles A. "Selected Demographic Factors that Affect School Planning: A Look at Four Northern Cities." *Urban Education* 2: 35; 1966.

7. See footnote 6, p. 40.

8. *New York Times*, March 15, 1967. p. 1.

9. James, H. Thomas. "Can Urban Schools Be Managed?" *Contemporary Issues in American Education,* consultants' papers prepared for use at The White House Conference on Education, July 20-21, 1965. OE-10034, Bulletin 1966, No. 3. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1965. pp. 151-58.

10. *Look*, May 17, 1966.

11. National School Public Relations Association. *Education U.S.A.*, September 29, 1966. Washington, D. C.: the Association, a department of the National Education Association. p. 27.

12. Havighurst, Robert J. *Education in Metropolitan Areas.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1966.

13. *Schoolhouse in the City.* New York: Educational Facilities Laboratories, 1966. pp. 10-14

14. Among the many descriptions of the "new ferment" in educational administration, two of the more readable ones are:

Moore, Hollis A., Jr. "The Ferment in School Administration." *Behavioral Science and Educational Administration.* Sixty-Third Yearbook, Part II, National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964.

Miller, Van. "Educational Administration as a Field of Study and Development." *The Public Administration of American School Systems.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1965.

15. Halpin, Andrew W., and Croft, Don B. *The Organizational Climate of Schools.* Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1963.

16. Halpin, Andrew W. "Changes and Organizational Climate." (A paper presented at the Governors' Educational Conference on November 18, 1965, in Maui, Hawaii.)

HUMAN RELATIONS AND THE PRINCIPAL

JOHN T. MALLAN AND FRANK CREASON

WHEN we talk about "human relations," we have a tendency to be abstract. Often we fail to realize that the term applies to any situation in which there is some form of social interaction. For example, while we do not wish to deny the concern we have with civil rights and the means used to assure a minority group such rights, we suggest that the larger and more visible concerns often seduce the educational cadre into a complacent attitude that overlooks the fact that the broad educational experience of our students is basically an excursion in social interaction.

It seems trite to remind ourselves that such things as attitudes, personal behavior, and general school "climate" are pervasive lessons. If lessons are justified on the basis that they lead to some change in behavior on the part of the student, then these lessons in human relations should be assessed. For example:

1. *There are degrees of protest movements:* A new teacher had taken a position in a small town. Classes started on Wednesday and by the time Friday evening arrived, the teacher decided to take in the local movie. After the movie, he decided he wanted a cup of coffee and some food, so he drove down the main street and found an establishment still open. When he entered the place he noticed that the front area served coffee and light food, while the back area appeared to be a bar. As he was drinking his coffee, a high school student came out of the back and sat on the stool beside him.

"You're a teacher at the high school, aren't you?" he asked. The teacher told the student that he had started working the past week.

"You're not supposed to be here," the student said.

"You mean that you don't want me here?" queried the teacher.

"Hell, no . . . we don't care. It's just that the place is 'off limits' for teachers. The school doesn't want you to come to a place like this. I just thought I'd tell you for your own good."

The teacher sensed that the boy had gone out of his way to do him a favor and thanked him for his effort. The boy returned to the noisy rear area of the restaurant and the teacher finished his coffee, aware of the interest he had created.

On the next Friday night, the teacher returned. He talked with a few of the adults, most of whom had students in the school. They did not talk

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about school. The conversation focused on the town—limited work opportunities and the like.

On the third Friday night, even more parents were there to talk, and they talked about education and their children. On their own grounds and in their own language (not always the kind one would hear at an open house or a PTA meeting), they indicated a real interest in what was going on. They called the teacher by his first name. During the week, the father of one of the teacher's students—a man whom he had talked with on the previous Friday night—called him at home and asked for some advice.

The following week, the teacher was called into the superintendent's office and told that it would be wise for him not to frequent such places. "Teachers have an image, you know, and it makes it hard on the rest of us to have fellow-teachers do such things."

Human relations? Judgments on social interaction? Ranking of students and families and community areas by the school? Why didn't these people come to an open house or PTA meeting? How did they vote on a pending bond issue?

2. *There are degrees of alienation:* An eighth-grade class had just studied about freedom of the press. Old Peter Zenger, the teacher, had assumed his traditional role of the hero who fought for the foundation of freedom—free and open communication.

One of the students in the class was the assistant editor of a junior high school newspaper. She had been partly responsible for leading the students in developing a junior high school constitution which had been desired by the administration. The constitution had been written, worked over in social studies classes, and ratified by the student body in an assembly.

Two months had passed since the constitution had been put on the principal's desk. The students wondered why no action had been taken on the results of their efforts. For this reason, they decided to write an editorial for the newspaper. The editorial stated simply—and in excellent taste—the background for developing the constitution, the interest of the student body, the importance of student government, and so forth. The last paragraph raised the question of why nothing had been heard from the school administration for over two months.

The article was "pulled" at the last minute by the principal. The student was called in and asked how she dared question the decisions of the principal. She was told that she had been rude and was not "a responsible school citizen."

The child came to her teacher, Peter Zenger, in tears, wanting to resign from the newspaper and wanting also to rid herself of concerns dealing with the move toward student government.

Human relations? The *real* lesson learned?

3. *A minority can be one:* The discussion in the faculty meeting finally turned to George. He was sixteen years old, not very bright, a good athlete, and "the kind you just put up with to keep the coaches happy."

So, George was put up with. For almost three months he sat in the back of the class. Because he was a good football player, the few times there was any "contact" the conversation between teacher and student was merely within the context of last Friday night's game.

Just before Christmas, the school wanted a large Christmas tree to put on stage. The assignment was given to a teacher who looked for a husky student to accompany him into the woods to cut down a tree and bring it back to school.

George was tapped. He and the teacher drove to a wooded area. It was just dusk—a cool, crisp evening, punctuated by a dash of orange on the horizon. George was wielding the axe and it rang as it bit into the tree. At one point he stopped. He and the teacher just stood in the light covering of snow.

"Isn't it beautiful?" George spoke. Indeed it was beautiful—one of those moments one tucks away into memory. On the way back to school in the car, the teacher discovered that poor, old, big, "dumb" George did some oil painting as a hobby. His family was on welfare, but somehow he got the paints and the canvas boards. Why did no one know of his interest? "I don't know—I guess no one ever cared enough to ask."

Human relations? A public school not caring enough to ask?

4. *Equal opportunity . . . to do what?* A group of junior high school students decided to adopt a family for Christmas, and adopting a family meant getting some money. They brought the question up in civics class and decided to get the economics teacher involved. Someone mentioned the need for refreshments, and this meant getting the home economics classes involved. The students decided to have a Christmas dance—a "Happy Holly Hop"—and to use the money taken in to buy food and gifts for the adopted family.

There were some problems. The junior high school had never held a dance before. As a matter of fact, most of the youngsters did not know how to dance, so special lessons were given after school.

The dance was a success. The economics class helped work out the finances. The home economics class served the refreshments. The choir sang at intermission. Over a hundred dollars emerged "clear" from the effort.

The students were pleased. Now, as the next step, the family had to be selected. They asked a teacher to go to the welfare department in town to locate a family. It might be embarrassing, the students thought, if they were to know the name of the family. "Just find out who needs a good Christmas. Find out ages and sizes of clothes and we'll take care of the rest."

The teacher went to the agency. She found to her surprise that most of her own students—the ones who planned and executed the promotion—were from families on welfare! The agency told her to adopt a family from another town.

She reported back on a family with no father, mother working, and three children age sixteen, eight, and four. Sizes were given.

At this point, several faculty members complained. The students had over a hundred dollars.

"They'll squander the money."

"It's insane to turn those kids loose with a hundred dollars."

"A faculty committee should buy and distribute the gifts."

Human relations? This story, however, had a good ending. A teacher who happened to find a backbone placed in an upright position said, "No."

And the students went shopping for nourishing food plus some candy. They found clothes which looked nice and were made to last: a snow suit for the little one, and for everyone, small personal gifts.

The gifts were wrapped; the welfare agency picked them up and delivered them on Christmas Eve. The receivers did not know the givers, nor the givers the receivers. And we talk so profoundly about giving with open hands . . .

Each of these stories is true. And there are countless others—big and little—which wend their way through the daily interactions and which are lessons more profound than the ones found on page 16 of the text.

Within this context, let us take a look at human relations and the school administrator. Human relations is the latest hit tune. Everybody hums it while he continues to pursue the usual daily activities.

It is a safe tune. The words are easy. Human relations means being nice to everybody. It means not making a scene, not rocking the boat. In many cases, it boils down to being committed to nothing and being a good guy. We have a tendency to substitute one stereotype for another, both stereotypes fulfilling a similar function: simplified thinking.

For example: Not too long ago, a group of interested people were discussing human relations. One member of the group, who was either naive or not initiated in the rules, had the audacity to suggest that human relations was a qualitative term—that it implied certain desired behavior. One of the experts rose to the occasion and commented that human relations—good human relations—was simply "being comfortable" with people who were different.

Think about this for a while and you will find it intellectually repulsive. In a closed system in which each knows his place and knows, as well, that his place is anchored through various means of social control, one can be quite comfortable with people who are different. A fascist could be quite "comfortable" with this explanation of differences.

We would argue that good human relations might involve a basic form of intolerance. It might involve making a scene. It might involve not loving and not respecting one's neighbor. (And doing the not loving and not respecting in public.) It might involve really rocking the boat. It might involve a passionate form of active intolerance in lieu of a weak acceptance of all forms of stupid, inhumane thinking and acting.

Homer Smith in his book *Man and His Gods* commented that:

> . . . from expedience, religion, politics, or lack of courage or conviction [man] has come to permit matters of disagreement, however vital, to be entombed in the mausoleum inscribed "democratic tolerance."

He goes on to say that it is one thing to defend freedom of thought for the sake of freedom and quite another to permit the victory, when won, to become the grave of inquiry. Smith called this the "gentleman's agreement" and insisted that such an agreement is becoming for our children a tomb for thinking and acting—which leads us into the subject of public school administration.

If human relations is more than just being comfortable—if it is the type of human activity encountered in a democratic and open society—then it becomes something essentially anti-authoritarian. The *active* anti-authoritarian view holds belief as the antithesis to thinking.

As Bergen Evans says in his delightful book, *The Natural History of Nonsense,* this democratic view of human relationships is based on a refusal to come to an unjustified conclusion, a refusal to look at blind faith as being something other than a call to slavery. He calls this refusal the honest man's religion. And the question we ask is: Is public school administration devoted to such a living religion?

We know that there is no freedom of thought without doubt. The knowers who would silence the doubters, the dogmatists who would deny open inquiry under the guise of democratic tolerance, are pushing all humans into an abdication of integrity. We are suggesting that the crux of human relations is a form of effective thinking and effective acting, where thinking and acting are consistent, where thinking and acting are reasonable and rational.

The public school claims to concern itself with effective thinking and changed behavior. We would agree that this is the heart of the educational endeavor. If this is true, the public school administrator's justification for existence rests on facilitating such thinking and acting. He must be a champion of skeptical thinking. He must accept the fact that all questions put some part of the stable world in jeopardy. He must endorse the conviction that the civilized man has a moral obligation to be skeptical, and he must demand credentials of all statements that claim to be facts.

He knows that tyranny rests on fraud, "on getting someone to accept false assumptions," and he is committed to deny those who for one moment abandon or suspend the questioning spirit, because he knows that this is a betrayal of mankind.

He is intolerant of any person or movement which would deny any man . . . or child . . . his dignity as expressed through his search to know what it is to be a human in the era in which he lives.

Sidney Hook was not kind to the administrator. He claimed that:

> In the modern world of bureaucratic institutions such as politics and education, it is said that the people at the top keep their subjects in the same way as psychiatrists or keepers of asylums treat their patients: take care of the material wants, provide them with relative comforts . . . AND LET THEM RAVE.

Now, regardless of whether or not Hook was correct in his assessment of administrators as keepers, we do know that the role of the administrator has changed.

This point came home when Calvin Gross, Superintendent of Schools, received his pink slip in New York City. Fred Hechinger, in the *New York Times,* questioned whether or not today's urban administrators have been trained to face the current social realities—to face the demands such realities are putting on the public school and the leadership of the public school. School administrators are trained to keep things running, to cope with routine problems of organization and personnel. They are trained to keep things running smoothly within and because of the structure. But the office of administration is undergoing a tremendous change. Both role and role expectations are receiving equal shock treatment.

The schools are often the battleground of politics, the arena of social reform, the equalizer of life chances for the constituents. "On one hand, they are to keep the vast machine oiled and running smoothly and, on the other, to be generals of social renewal, if not revolution." Today's administrators may have been trained to go "by the book," but they can no longer do this because the book has yet to be written.

Today's administrator is concerned with not only public education but with education of the public as well. His school is no longer a building but the larger community. And in this community, the curriculum is a dynamic and seething cluster of interacting social movements.

Today's administrator is a practicing social scientist whose task it is to coordinate the interrelated network of social systems which converge on the expanded concept of what being educated means. But, as Hechinger suggests, he is more than a mechanic. He is a community leader, and, as such, his leadership implies some direction toward a desired end. His behavior implies the goal of his leadership.

To say that he is a social scientist is simply to say that he is responsible for coordinating social or human relations. (It is not quite this simple, but this is what it amounts to.) If he is a leader, this coordination pivots on his conception of the open society and the types of human beings such a society wants cultivated and honored.

As a social scientist, he is dedicated to empirical data regarding social relations, and he rejects shabby thinking and acting. Can such a dedication tolerate what you and I were exposed to in our school experience? Remember in elementary school when social studies was a collective term for learning "manners," for standing in line, for being polite, for respecting authority? Remember swallowing the idea capsules, not only as a student but as a professional as well?

1. *One man's opinion is as good as another's.* Opinion about what? By whom? In what situation? Good for whom? We didn't ask those questions, because to challenge the idea would be to challenge democracy. Everybody should have his opinions weighed equally? How naive.
2. *We must be tolerant.* Tolerant of what, or whom, and why?
3. *The majority rules.*
4. *Right will win out in the end.*

But how does all this tie in with the administrator and human relations? We are told that prejudice (ineffective thinking and acting) as a general psychological tendency is often associated with such things as: generalized mental rigidity, little tolerance for ambiguity, a strong affiliation for institutionalized patterns, authoritarianism, conformity, and extreme conventionality.

We are told that prejudiced seven-year-olds being tested show greater difficulty in forming concepts, more willingness to jump to conclusions in terms of insufficient data, and more likelihood to stay with old patterns even when faced with new and pertinent data.

In other words, prejudiced thinking is part of a total cognitive pattern of thinking and acting on anything—a right answer, the need for structure and certainty, high loyalty to institutions as such, a mental rigidity about life in general. Adorno called this the authoritarian personality. These people are not self-directed, not autonomous, not open to newness.

If prejudice is a reflection of a total style, we might do well to recall that the school must maintain a concern with the "whole" child in a total, permeating atmosphere. This is the administrator's concern.

Knowing that we are generalizing, knowing that there is a continuum of behavior, we would like to formuate some hypotheses:

1. General hypotheses: The entire public school, in general, from personnel recruitment to curriculum evaluation and structure, rules, language, leadership, reward systems, and so forth, is a social institution which actually lends support to the prejudiced person—be he student, teacher, or administrator. In other words, the entire system is pitted against the open, tolerant, thinking, acting, creative person. Therefore, if the hypothesis is correct, the more successful the public school is, the more fearful we become.
2. A series of sub-hypotheses:
    a. People indicating education as a choice of vocation are often people from backgrounds which indicate the need for the security of conservative, institutionalized patterns.
    b. The institutionalized structure does something to the person working within it. It rewards early closure and sets rigid standards; it structures behavior and sets up general demands through all sorts of social controls.
    c. Within such a structure, who succeeds? Success may be viewed in terms of promotion to an administrative post. Who gets such a position? Obviously, the one who conformed to the role expectations while a classroom teacher: good discipline, "gets things done," reliable, students did well against an absolute standard, seldom was a trouble maker, and so forth.
    d. The person with intellectual integrity, who has ideas, who is open to the possibility that failure may be a path to success, who creates, who challenges in open inquiry, who dares to be different, is the lonesome maverick and very often a professional outcast.

We are suggesting that the "gentleman's agreement" is one of playing the game without the over-all commitment to the purpose of the organization. The reasoning goes something like this: We must educate the young. Therefore: We build a school system to accomplish the purpose. Therefore: Education cannot take place without the structure. Therefore: The structure gets primary attention on a day-to-day basis because it has to be perpetuated.

We submit the following ideas:

1. Human relations as a descriptive term is meaningless. It has to be probed in terms of human behavior.
2. The administrator's role is one of a practicing social scientist whose job pivots on many aspects of social or human relations.
3. Human relations is related to a general personality readiness which interacts with a total thinking pattern.
4. The school's function should be concerned with thinking.
5. The public school, as a social institution, is geared toward producing the intolerant and closed personality.
6. If the school succeeds, the child fails.

7. The administrator operates within the framework of the gentleman's agreement—"love that system."

We are pessimistic when we try to view the school as an initiating instrument of social change. The school is conservative, its personnel are conservative, what it calls education is conservative—although conservative of what, we are uncertain.

It seems to us that the administrator who views the teaching act as a moral act and who has the fortitude to encourage and demand openness in his system and community will see results.

We do not change individuals as such. The social revolution around us points to the sociological concept of changing the situation and the norms. *Then* the people react to the new norms. The administrator can change the situation, unless he must have certainty, ready answers, structure, rules, and a ready reference book.

It can be done, but we are not at all confident that it will be done. It is discouraging to note how often belief in the Bill of Rights labels one a radical shade of pink. It is also discouraging to note that an anchored, nonrocking boat is not standing still. A crew housed in a dry dock may escape the hot water, but the cargo is not being used.

Human relations—social relations—is the crux of the social institution publicly supported to socialize the young. To recognize this is one thing, to pay the price of commitment is another. The school administrator is in a relatively good position to change the total pattern and thus to open minds of teachers and students. This can be done. But it can only be done when it is seen as being of primary value.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP— TOWARD THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY

THOMAS B. STONE

TODAY most elementary school principals are reasonably sophisticated regarding the scope and direction of the curriculum reforms that have influenced not only the curricula of elementary and secondary schools but colleges and universities as well. It is a rare principal who has not been deeply and significantly involved in bringing new programs into his school and school system. However, there is reason to believe that many educators, including elementary school principals, do not have the reform movement in proper perspective. What, then, are the requisites for placing the wave of reforms in proper perspective? The following postulates are offered.

1. Present programs are only the first step in a long-range effort. Many new programs are already obsolete, even in terms of today's demands, much less being adequate for the new demands of the year 2000.
2. Large numbers of teachers are inadequately educated for coping with the demands of the new curricula. Their educational deficiencies lie in at least three critical areas. First, they are evident in the basic areas of human knowledge, with particular reference to an area of specialization; second, they are evident in the area of pedagogy. Brown has stated the problem well:

> The most serious obstacle of all to the success of the social studies revolution lies in the fact that too few teachers are equipped to cope with it. Trained themselves in dreary expository courses by academicians and professional educators, many have no idea what it is to ask a question or pursue a line of inquiry. They teach as they have been taught. It is precisely here, in the field of teacher training, that the revolution will ultimately be won or lost.
>
> Because it insists that the mode of inquiry should be the heart of "content," the new pedagogy in fact breathes new life into the old idea that in talking about teaching one cannot separate subject matter from method. Similarly, it breathes new life into another long empty cliché, the idea that scholarship and teaching are inextricably linked, and that fundamentally it is only the inquirer—by temperament if not necessarily by profession—who can teach well.[1]

The third area in which teachers are inadequately educated is in the several foundational areas of psychology, anthropology, and sociology, which are essential for understanding, in a fundamentally clinical way, the nature of children and its implications for effective instruction.

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For the most part, teachers are victims of a system of higher education which even now, except for a few isolated instances, is offering teachers a grossly inadequate education.

3. Most principals are victims of the same system of miseducation as teachers. Because of the key leadership role of the principal, his educational deficiencies become especially critical. It is not an overstatement to assert that large numbers of principals are ill-prepared to assume dynamic leadership roles in facilitating the current curriculum reform movement, much less to point the way to needed educational reforms.

Evidence shows that the so-called educational revolution has left large numbers of schools and children relatively untouched. Despite considerable objective data which indicate children and youth to be achieving at increasingly higher levels, there is also much data, admittedly less objective, which suggest that few public schools have programs that are in tune with the dynamics of this, our nameless era, much less being adequate for the future.

Evidence is abundant: Among the thousands of teachers and principals in America, there resides a tremendous reservoir of unchallenged intelligence, latent creativity, and productive energy, which constitutes a sleeping giant, equal not only to the task of making current reforms effective but, most important, capable of charting a course that will take public education to the next century in triumph.

Some Thoughts About Current Behaviors of Elementary Principals

Careful study of the administrative behavior of principals suggests that, in general, two distinct types of behavior may be found. One type of behavior may be called *administrative-managerial*, which is characterized by a primary emphasis upon those tasks which have to do with the routine running of the school. The second type of behavior may be called *institutional leadership*, which is characterized by showing primary concern for developing policy and establishing goals. It is unfortunate that, according to many competent observers, a very high percentage of principals engage in administrative-managerial behaviors almost exclusively.

McCleary and Hencley have referred to the effective institutional leader as the "educational statesman" and have suggested his central focus as follows:

> The educational statesman is much more than an organizational manager, efficiency expert, and interpersonal leader. The statesman concerns himself with ends as well as means, with purposes as well as processes. He plays a responsible role in policy development as well as in policy implementation. Indeed, the distinguishing characteristic of educational statesmanship is most clearly evident in the realm of policy and purpose activity: institutional leaders actively seek not only to define and interpret the aims, goals, and roles of organizations but also to build cohesive, value-infused social structures that are impelled toward the achievement of institutional purposes.[2]

How different are the roles of the administrative manager and the educational statesman. How different must be the vitality and dynamism of schools led by educational statesmen rather than administrative managers. One of the cardinal sins, committed by principals as a group, is the dominance of administrative managers among their ranks. The future of education must be planned and guided by educational statesmen.

At this point, it is important to discuss briefly the environmental milieu which usually surrounds the superintendency. Most superintendencies have several characteristics which are common to all but a handful of frontier, pioneering superintendencies. Some of these characteristics are:

1. The administrative managerial syndrome is dominant.
2. Conservatism in both policy and practice dominates.
3. Timidity, and in many instances outright fear, characterizes both planning and policy implementation. This is the kind of climate that nurtures the "let's don't rock the boat" administrator.
4. An unwholesome togetherness exists which is based more upon sticking together for mutual protection than upon being a vital member of a courageous, hard-charging team in the pursuit of worthy goals that have been mutually determined and mutually pursued.
5. Despite the atmosphere of togetherness which prevails, an autocratic undertone which keeps the internal boat from rocking is present.

In this kind of setting, a principal usually has three choices. First, he can play the togetherness game and be reasonably comfortable as an administrative manager. Second, he can seek employment among that relatively small number of superintendencies whose collective behavior and values are the antithesis of the climate described. Third, the principal can attempt by his own behavior to change the climate and direction of the superintendency. The desired and necessary behavior required in such a setting may be termed constructive abrasiveness.

The facts of life happen to be such that the principal who dares to practice constructive abrasiveness in this setting is likely to be fired. Though he may retain his position, unless his talents are large and his achievements outstanding, his chances of effecting significant change within the superintendency are small indeed. Yet, the profession, teachers, and children need principals who will practice constructive abrasiveness in the pursuit of a better climate for education.

Another cardinal sin among principals is their willingness to perpetuate the kind of unwholesome togetherness which is the dry rot of the educational establishment.

It is safe to conclude—at this moment in history—that principals as a group are relatively impotent as a vital force in making American education the kind of dynamic, creative vehicle for maximizing human potential it is capable of becoming. Such a conclusion, however, does not negate the tremendous potential which resides within the national body of elementary principals. Two sources of potential and immeasurable power reside within that body. The first source of power and potential lies in the pent-up reservoirs of intelligence, creativity, and thwarted purposes which lurk underneath the mask of unwholesome togetherness and conformity.

A second and highly critical source of power and potential lies in the very fact of numbers, and the very strategic spots held within superintendencies across the nation. There is little doubt that the elementary principals of America have the power—however one cares to define power

—to chart the course of American education, particularly in the important areas of program policy and its implementation.

The Grand Design—Blueprint for Action

Should the elementary principals of America elect the challenge inherent in our nameless era and the urgent demands of the twenty-first century, the ideas which follow may be worth considering as a modus operandi for designing action strategies. Three foci seem critical. These foci may appropriately be viewed as the three dimensions of the design: 1) the program and instruction dimension, 2) the teacher education dimension, and 3) the administrative leadership dimension.

The Program and Instruction Dimension

If one accepts the validity of the thesis enunciated earlier—namely that the current reform movement not only reveals signs of obsolescence but has left large segments of the school population relatively untouched —the nature of the tasks related to the first dimension would seem relatively obvious. However, let the task be stated explicitly.

Despite evidence that the current reform movement is obsolete in several fundamental ways, it is mandatory that most of its essential elements be incorporated in instructional programs for every school in the nation. This must be accomplished within the shortest time period possible. This task becomes a matter of extreme urgency, not so much for the values which will accrue through bringing current reforms into every school but because the essential aspects of the current reform movement must be the bridge which will lead American education to the twenty-first century oriented curricula. *Bringing the current reform movement into every school in America within the shortest time possible is the first task to be achieved within the program and instruction dimension.*

The second task that must be achieved within the program and instruction dimension is formulating strategies for bringing the total resources of the intellectual life of America to bear upon rethinking the purposes of American education in terms of the imperatives of the future. Not only must educators reformulate the purposes of education but they must devise new curricula and systems of instruction to achieve reformulated purposes.

Let the phrase "total intellectual life of America" be reemphasized with all the power that phrase implies. It is only through full utilization of this reservoir of thought that we can rid ourselves of traditional concepts of "schoolness" which, to a high degree, have rendered the current wave of reforms something other than a triumphant march toward excellence.

Not only must effort be initiated early to achieve the task of bringing the current reform movement into every school in America but effort to achieve the second task must be initiated at the same time.

In pursuing the tasks suggested in the program and instruction dimension, we must be willing to ultimately abandon a majority of our notions about not only what should be taught but about school organization and personnel utilization. Once we tap in full measure the intellectual power of America, we must be willing to follow its mandates, regardless of the violence it may do to our present model.

No group within the educational structure is more advantageously situated, nor more psychologically and professionally disposed, than the elementary principals to achieve the two tasks suggested.

The Teacher Education Dimension

To suggest that elementary principals should have any serious concern for, and certainly responsibility for, teacher education might once have seemed to be farfetched. Yet, it is the traditional gulf between elementary principals and teacher educators that accounts, in part, for the general irrelevance of many facets of teacher education. As we accept the challenge of building programs of instruction which are in harmony with the imperatives of the twenty-first century, programs of teacher education must change as fundamentally as programs for educating children. Because of the built-in conservatism of institutions of higher education—and the unique irrelevancies inherent in most colleges of education—some external force must demand some redirection of teacher education programs at several levels. Because elementary principals, and the teachers they represent, constitute perhaps the largest body of constituents served by teacher education institutions, they are strategically placed to demand changes in teacher education programs. What are some teacher education concerns which ought to demand the attention of principals? Three areas seem vital. These areas are *service*, *pre-service*, and *in-service*.

The service functions. Most colleges and universities which prepare teachers usually engage in a variety of activities within school systems which are called service functions. Most public school personnel tend to be either too polite or too circumspect to reveal the real truth about the quality and value of such services. What seems generally to characterize the alleged service function of teacher education personnel within public schools?

It tends, first, to be characterized by peripheral involvement. It is a rare circumstance which finds personnel from a college or university becoming involved in a depth way in one or more basic aspects of a public school program. This "depth way" suggests aspects of a public school program. Such involvement should include not only planning, purposing, and commitment but also a full sharing of responsibility for success of a particular program. The more honest and basic question is: How many teacher education personnel are genuinely capable of going into a classroom and demonstrating the behavior of a master teacher?

Just as no surgeon would be allowed in a teaching hospital unless he were highly proficient as a surgeon, no teacher educator should be allowed in a school unless he is capable of demonstrating proficiency at the master teacher level in his area of specialization.

While few, if any, teacher education institutions view themselves as being genuine partners in the public school enterprise, any less involvement is a betrayal of their purpose and mission.

Public school personnel, and elementary principals in particular, have tolerated third-rate services from teacher educators down through the years. Because teacher educators have usually demonstrated third-rate competence within the public school classroom, they have encouraged the so-called "consultant" role, a role which allows them to do what most do best—talk.

As we move toward the twenty-first century, teacher education institutions must become full partners with public schools—a role which calls not only for planning but in appropriate ways and at strategic times for assuming full partnership in implementation.

Elementary schools will receive such partnership cooperation when they become willing to accept nothing less. They will see some teacher educators demonstrate competence with children—when it is demanded in lieu of pleasant but usually unproductive talk of the "consultant."

When elementary principals make these demands, they will have done teacher educators the greatest of all possible services. They will have forced them to demonstrate what they preach. For many teacher educators, responding to these demands will call for refurbishing some skills which have grown dull or the development of skills never before acquired.

Moving education toward the twenty-first century demands that teacher educators become, for the first time, full partners with public educators. Elementary principals can demand such a partnership, but, more importantly, they will force teacher educators to develop genuine skills in those areas which are fundamentally relevant to teaching and learning in public schools.

The pre-service functions. Of all programs offered by colleges and universities, none is so filled with obvious irrelevancies as pre-service programs for teachers. Most teachers are frank in their admission that student teaching was usually the one experience having relevance. They are usually frank, too, in asserting that the college or university contributed little toward making that experience relevant.

As we move toward the twenty-first century, teacher education must be fundamentally relevant. Achieving relevance calls for several fundamental changes. Among them is acceptance of the notion that the total university educates teachers—not the college of education. The college of education must quickly become the planner and manager of clinical experiences focused upon clearly defined acts of teaching. Even so-called methods courses must be offered in public school clinical settings. The whole range of changes which must come in the pre-service education of teachers is beyond the scope of this paper. However, it is clear that elementary principals have the power to demand—and get—fundamental and encompassing changes in the pre-service education of teachers.

First, no public school personnel is in a more key spot to know in detail the shortcomings and irrelevancies of current programs than elementary principals. Second, trends indicate that public schools will increasingly become the clinical setting for educating teachers in all their so-called professional dimensions. Thus, in effect, many principals will be involved in teacher education. And third, because of their numbers and proximity to the current deficiencies of teacher education, principals can make their combined voice of protest heard. Because they can be heard, they can be highly instrumental in forcing changes in teacher education—changes which will make relevance the key criterion for devising programs.

In-service functions. When one thinks of in-service functions provided by colleges and universities for public school personnel, two levels seem to be common. One level has to do with the variety of programs and services offered within a school system but usually not carrying college credit. One could identify an almost limitless range of such involvements. A second level of in-service activity offered by colleges and universities is related to graduate courses offered toward graduate degrees, permanent certification—or even because a teacher genuinely wants to learn something. Such programs usually carry credit.

In most respects, concepts offered in discussion of the service and pre-service functions apply with equal validity to the in-service function. The question of relevance is as vital within the in-service function as it is in the other areas. It is likely that when pre-service programs have become more relevant, so will in-service programs.

Administrative Leadership Dimension

One does not have to offer a strong case to support the thesis that the majority of elementary principals function as administrative managers rather than educational statesmen. It would seem unnecessary, too, to present an elaborate case in regard to the sources of those administrative behaviors. In the first instance, the whole press within the superintendencies and the broader educational establishment tends to encourage the managerial syndrome. Equally powerful is the kind of education, or more appropriately miseducation, the principal has had. With respect to basic education and the professional aspects of his education, the principal is in essentially the same predicament as the classroom teacher. But for the principal who may have a master's degree in administration, the tendency toward managerial behaviors is reinforced. Although in master's degree administration courses there is considerable talk about instructional leadership, one leaves most such experiences convinced that keeping one's milk money account in order and not rocking the boat is, in the final analysis, the most desired behavior—particularly if one aspires to move up the administrative ladder to a higher position.

It is refreshing to discover, with increasing frequency, principals who are acutely aware of their miseducation, who are outwardly concerned about the limiting aspects of the managerial approach. These principals yearn to break out of the barren environment which holds them in its grip. It is this increasingly prevalent mood which suggests that the elementary principals of America are ready to accept the challenge of not only doing something now about their own reeducation but are also ready to force an educational revolution within universities which will guarantee that future administrators will, at the outset, be educated to function as educational statesmen—and not as educational managers.

Thus, to meet future challenges, the elementary principals of America must force an educational revolution within universities—a revolution which will guarantee that administrators can, indeed, be educated to function as educational statesmen.

While it would seem obvious that ultimate specifics for the grand design would emerge as the Department of Elementary School Principals moved in its own way to accept the challenge suggested, some broad suggestions do seem appropriate.

1. The first step would be adoption of a resolution calling for a ten-year project to be called *Project 21*, twenty-one being in harmony with the twenty-first century.

2. The resolution should call for establishing a national center whose functions would be to facilitate achievement of the purposes implied within the three dimensions.

3. The resolution should also call for the national center to remain under direct leadership of the Department of Elementary School Principals.

4. The national center should be directed to tap the total reservoir of intellectual power in America to spell out in a more specific way the role and function of *Project 21*.

5. *Project 21* should accept as one of its goals the development of a productive dialogue with every significant experimental program in America that seems to be focused upon some aspect of the three dimensions.

6. The national center for *Project 21* should develop regional centers across the nation to facilitate the work and purposes of the national center.

7. The project should be action centered rather than research centered. Thus, it would be essentially an avid consumer of whatever research seems relevant to the purposes of *Project 21*. It is likely, too, that *Project 21* would frequently offer suggestions to research centers for research to be done.

8. Through its several regional centers, *Project 21* should develop working relationships with every teacher education institution in America.

9. The project should view its primary function as bringing the best ideas from the ever increasing group of research centers and projects across the nation into elementary schools in an orderly systematic fashion. One of the critical tasks of the staff of the national center would be to develop criteria for determining what programs and projects seem worthy of feeding into the elementary schools of America.

10. It is suggested that the resolution call for inviting several of the large foundations to have a part in making *Project 21* a success.

Project 21 would fill an ever increasing vacuum in the swirling world of projects, innovations, and ideas. That vacuum has at least three important aspects. First, there needs to be some articulation among the countless programs and projects. Second, a concerned national group needs to have the courage to raise questions about many fads which have emerged and been accepted in countless schools. Some competent group needs to ask constantly: Are these programs, innovations, or ideas characterized by the kind of excellence that will move public education toward twenty-first century oriented curricula? Third, it is urgent that a national group, with a grass roots orientation in every school in America, dare to assume a leadership role which will guarantee that the elementary schools of America move steadily toward new levels of excellence—an excellence which rejects with the precision of a computer the fads and superficialities which often pass for progress.

The tasks inherent in *Project 21* are mandatory as we move toward the twenty-first century. No professional group in America is more necessary to the success of such a project than the elementary principals. It is a tremendous task—but the ultimate rewards for better education are more tremendous.

FOOTNOTES

1. Brown, Richard H. "History and the New Social Studies." *Saturday Review,* October 15, 1966. p. 92.

2. McCleary, Lloyd E., and Hencley, Stephen P. *Secondary School Administration. Theoretical Bases of Professional Practice.* New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1965. p. 123.

CONSULTATION AS A FUNCTION OF LEADERSHIP

OSCAR W. KNADE, JR.

FEW of us would deny that the elementary school principal has a leadership role. The question is not whether principals should be educational leaders but rather how they should function as leaders.

A great number of studies have been made in which researchers have attempted to identify the critical elements of leadership behavior. In most of this research, there is a common element—an emphasis on human relationships. In fact, Myers concluded from his synthesis of the research that leadership is the product of interaction, not of status or position.[1]

I would suggest further that one highly important mode of leadership behavior in interaction situations is the exercise of interpersonal influence. This view is advanced by Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik when they write, "We define leadership as interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals."[2] It is my view, then, that a principal who is a leader in his school system and who is perceived as a leader by his fellow administrators is so because of the influence he can bring to bear on decisions his colleagues make. His leadership is related to the interpersonal influence he exercises in problem-solving situations through the consultative process.

The study reported here was designed to examine the consultative role of elementary school principals in the decision making of other administrators and school board members in their districts.[3] Consultation was defined as a process in which a person provides a decision maker with advice, information, and opinions for the purpose of informing or influencing the decision or both.

The research was conducted in selected school districts in the state of New Jersey. Data were obtained through structured interviews, averaging about an hour, with a sample of elementary school principals and with the superintendents from each of the districts. The principals also completed written questionnaires, and corroborating evidence was secured from written documents. The findings covered many areas of the consultative process, but I will discuss here those related to consultation as a leadership function of elementary school principals.

For the most part, principals in the study did engage in consultative activities with other administrators in their school districts and with

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their boards of education and individual board members. These activities included providing data for and advice on specific decisions as well as supporting alternative solutions to problems. Moreover, most principals seemed to wish to function in a consultative capacity and considered this an appropriate activity.

Generally, the principals felt that a good measure of their leadership in a school system was related to the extent and effectiveness of their consultative activity. They also felt that a principal who is consulted frequently and regularly by other administrators and, in some cases, by school board members can be considered a leader among the administrative staff in a school system.

Most of the superintendents in the study saw a distinct relationship between a principal's consultative activity and his designation as a leader in the school system. In fact, many of the superintendents said they consulted most frequently the principals whom they considered to be educational leaders in their school systems. They also reported that the principals who initiated consultations—that is, who offered advice or information and identified problems without waiting to be asked—were the ones to whom they looked for leadership among the administrative staff.

However, not all of the principals considered their consultative roles of the same importance. Some seemed content not to be consulted on matters which did not affect them directly and a few even wanted to be left alone despite an atmosphere in their school districts which encouraged consultative activity. In my judgment, such behavior is an abdication of one function of leadership that principals should exercise.

Developing the Consultative Role

How can a principal help to establish consultative decision making in his school district and expand his own consultative role? I will make four suggestions.

First, the principal must accept the consultative role as one of his several functions. He must see himself not only as a decision maker but also as a helper to others who must make decisions. He must add to his perceptions of his duties the role of reactor, opinion giver, and supplier of data for decisions of others. Sears makes the point well: "To be effective in a subordinate administrative capacity . . . the subordinate must be an aggressive, constructive critic within his own field and must be responsible for seeing that his superiors are appraised of the needs of his field as he sees them." [4]

As this citation suggests, principals must be willing to initiate consultations. A principal who gives advice only when asked is not worth much to the organization. Self-initiated consultations offer the principal opportunities to submit to other administrators his appraisal of a situation or to identify and communicate specific problems in his own school and in the school district in general.

In what types of decisions should an elementary school principal expect to be consulted? Common sense dictates three basic areas of decision in which superintendent-principal consultation is essential to good working relationships: decisions which affect the principal personally, decisions which affect his school, and decisions which relate to the elementary school program generally. As an educational leader, the principal should also provide consultative help on problems relating to the total instructional program, K-12, and on any field in which he has had special training or experience. I also believe, as did the principals in the study, that the elementary school principal should be consulted on decisions relating to general school system operation and organization, if only because he is a vital part of that organization. Finally, there may be situations in which a principal can be of real service when he is asked to advise on decisions concerning another principal's school or another administrator's area of responsibility.

Second, if the principal is to develop and expand his consultative role, consultation must occur not by accident but as a result of official, formal relationships among administrators. There should be built-in mechanisms for consultative decision making—administrative cabinets, councils, committees and the like which have regular meetings. Such mechanisms assure decision makers of consultative service and help to protect both administrators and the school system from whimsical, unilateral, arbitrary, and uninformed decisions.

These arrangements should be built into the school system's organization by design and not be subject to the transitory relationships between a superintendent and his principals. They should be the result of either school board policies or written procedures initiated and developed by the administrative staff. My study indicated a general lack of such policies and procedures despite the principals' feeling that they were necessary to assure regular consultative opportunities.

In addition to establishing the structure for consultation, the policies should provide that certain phases of planning for program, plant, and personnel will be opened for ideas from administrators and supervisors other than those on the superintendent's immediate staff. Probably the key area in which principals should seek to be consulted regularly and in an organized manner is budget making. The budget-making process is a focal point of administrative operation, and it is vital that there be organized procedures for gathering ideas and information which affect budget decisions.

It was disconcerting to find that many principals in the study had virtually no involvement in the budget process. Only about 70 per cent actually contributed in some way to decisions affecting the budget for their own school or the school district. Less than half of the school districts had written budget procedures identifying general and individual responsibilities. It would seem that principals who believe that consultation is part of their leadership role would attempt to secure policies and procedures which give them a definite role in budget preparation.

A third way in which principals can expand their consultative activities is to develop a field of specialty—for example, school finance, a specific curriculum area, school plant, or pupil transportation. This enables the principal to provide leadership within his school system in an area in which he has a great deal of interest and knowledge. It also provides the superintendent with a staff of competent consultants within the organization who can advise him and other administrators.

More than half of the principals in the study agreed with this idea.

Several principals had special fields of competence and were consulted by their superintendents about decisions in that area.

Finally, principals who wish to expand their leadership role through consultation should become acquainted with and develop the kinds of qualities an effective consultant manifests.

Such attributes as high intelligence, good judgment, insight, communicative ability, and broad professional knowledge and experience are required of all administrators and educational leaders. They are also required of consultants. The interpersonal nature of the consultative relationship, however, requires additional skills—the skills of working with individuals and groups. To function in a consultative role, then, the principal must be both knowledgeable about the substantive area being considered and equipped with the attitudes and skills that enable him to use his expert knowledge in helping the decision maker. This is another way of saying that the consultant must be skilled in working with people so that they will accept the help he has to offer.

If it is true that leadership is related to the influence an individual has on his colleagues' decisions, elementary school principals can significantly enhance their role in the school district by assuming an active consultative role. They can become more than status leaders whose influence is only the result of the position they hold. By complementing the functions of authority and command with the function of counsel, they can be true leaders in the educational enterprise.

FOOTNOTES

1. Myers, Robert B. "A Synthesis of Research in Leadership." Paper presented to the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1957. (Unpublished)

2. Tannenbaum, Robert; Weschler, Irving R.; and Massarik, Fred. *Leadership and Organizations: A Behavioral Science Approach.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1961. p. 24.

3. Knade, Oscar W., Jr. *The Consultative Role of the Elementary School Principal in the Decision-Making Processes of Selected New Jersey School Systems.* Doctor's thesis. Philadelphia: Temple University, 1965. (Unpublished)

4. Sears, Jesse B. *City School Administrative Controls.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1938. p. 48.

DUTIES OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

C. L. AINSWORTH

THE Research Committee of the Texas Elementary Principals and Supervisors Association has completed a study of the duties of the elementary principals in Texas. The survey was designed to determine the frequency with which principals perform various duties and to obtain their assessment of the importance of these duties.

The survey instrument consisted of 83 items, each describing a rather specific duty appropriate to the elementary school principalship. These items were developed by careful study of job descriptions and principals' handbooks from school districts throughout the state and by an analysis of relevant professional literature. The 83 items were grouped into four broad categories: 1) Educational Programs; 2) Personnel Administration; 3) Management; and 4) Community Relations. Respondents were requested to indicate 1) the frequency with which they performed each of the duties, and 2) the importance they attached to each.

The instrument was administered during a 1965 summer workshop of the Texas Elementary Principals and Supervisors Association, and responses were obtained from 137 elementary school principals. To check the reliability of the instrument, separate tallies were made of each half of the responses. The responses in both halves yielded almost identical results in comparison with the other half and with the total—an indication of good reliability.

In using the results of this survey, certain limitations should be remembered:

1. No provision was made to discriminate between the responses of full-time supervising principals, teaching principals, and head teachers. The Committee has assumed that the responses were from full-time supervising principals.

2. All of the specific duties of elementary principals could not be listed in the instrument. The 83 items included are not purported to represent a complete definition of the elementary principalship.

3. Only a portion of the elementary principals in the state were involved in the survey, and only a portion of school districts were represented, although schools and school systems of various sizes were represented.

4. The instrument used terms for which there are no precise

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quantitative definitions—for example, "sometimes" and "often." It also used terms such as "little importance" and "extreme importance" which are necessarily subject to varying interpretations.

Despite these limitations, which are generally found in most surveys of this type, the study may be useful in a number of ways. It might serve as the basis for studying the elementary principalship in an individual school district or in a class in which material illustrative of the views of principals on the job is desired. The instrument itself, as well as the results, could also help to define the principalship in districts when there are no adequate descriptions of the elementary principal's job.

In the following item-by-item report of the survey results, several findings are of considerable interest:

- The respondents apparently feel that most of their specific duties in three of the four major categories—educational program, personnel administration, and community relations—warrant more of their time than they are presently giving them. In the fourth category, management, they feel that they are giving more time than is desirable to half of the specific duties listed.
- The duty which was considered to be of "extreme importance" by the largest proportion of respondents (84 per cent) was to "create an atmosphere of friendly cooperation and understanding among staff members."
- The duties which the largest proportion of respondents (76 per cent) reported performing "very frequently" were to "maintain adequate school records which conform to the state laws and local board of education policies" and to "supervise student registration." The amount of time required for record keeping of various kinds underscores the need for adequate clerical assistance to free principals for other responsibilities which cannot easily be delegated.

Readers will identify other points of interest in the results by studying the following summary of the findings.

QUESTIONNAIRE

DUTY	DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE					FREQUENCY OF PERFORMANCE				
	None	Little	Average	More than average	Extreme	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very frequently
In the area of EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM, do you, as a principal,										
1. Develop a continuous and coordinated program of professional experiences through in-service training and/or by providing group studies?	—	1%	21%	41%	38%	2%	4%	24%	25%	15%
2. Direct, stimulate, and motivate teachers to maximum teaching performance?	—	—	4	24	73	—	1	14	43	42
3. Actively engage in continuous curriculum development. This involves planning and adapting curriculum to the needs of the children?	—	1	8	28	62	—	5	27	38	30

DUTY	DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE					FREQUENCY OF PERFORMANCE				
	None	Little	Average	More than average	Extreme	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very frequently
4. Give leadership in implementation of guidance and testing program of the school?	1	2	16	45	36	2	6	21	44	27
5. Involve yourself in promotion, retention, or placement of students?	—	3	13	30	54	1	3	14	30	52
6. Continually survey needs of weaker areas and provide opportunities for improvement? This involves diagnosis and analysis of the information as well as recommending action in individual cases.	—	—	16	37	47	1	2	28	49	20
7. Work with individual teachers to improve teaching?	—	—	6	25	69	—	1	18	43	39
8. Serve as a resource person to the staff: identification, evaluation, and securing materials for instruction?	—	—	15	43	41	—	2	21	50	27
9. Work with staff in formulation of plans for evaluating and reporting pupil progress?	—	1	21	41	37	—	7	23	44	26
10. Direct selection of library materials?	1	4	32	40	24	1	16	38	29	16
11. Assist teachers in adapting instructional program to individual students?	—	1	16	38	46	—	4	31	46	19
12. Plan goals and objectives with staff in accordance with school policy and procedure?	—	1	13	34	53	—	4	24	39	33
13. Utilize effectively all available consultative and supervisory services in maintaining an adequate instructional program?	1	1	20	39	40	2	7	32	37	21
14. Provide general supervision of all areas in the school?	1	—	7	31	62	—	2	9	40	49
15. Create an atmosphere of friendly cooperation and understanding among staff members?	—	—	3	13	84	—	1	4	34	36
16. Actively serve in state and local professional organizations?	—	3	18	43	36	5	7	17	35	36
17. Conduct case conferences concerning pupils?	—	3	18	43	36	1	12	24	42	22
18. Lead in referral of pupils to other agencies?	—	1	22	41	36	3	7	33	34	22
19. Keep the board and the public informed through the superintendent of the total program in your school?	1	1	9	35	55	1	4	15	42	36

DUTY	DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE					FREQUENCY OF PERFORMANCE				
	None	Little	Average	More than average	Extreme	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very frequently
20. Visit classrooms often for observation?	—	1	11	39	50	1	6	26	39	29
In the area of PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION, do you, as a principal,										
21. Assign specific duties and communicate responsibilities and authority to all personnel assigned to the school unit?	—	—	13	44	43	1	1	10	44	44
22. Evaluate performance of all personnel and recommend for reemployment?	—	—	6	26	69	—	3	10	18	69
23. Provide, or administer, sound evaluative techniques?	—	4	12	48	36	1	9	25	46	19
24. Interpret state and school district policy and practice?	—	3	8	40	50	—	4	22	42	32
25. Work in induction and orientation of new personnel?	—	—	5	33	62	1	—	8	44	47
26. Select, assign, and evaluate substitute teachers?	—	3	20	34	43	2	10	12	31	45
27. Recognize teacher achievement and encourage leaders to participate in school planning?	1	1	12	40	47	1	4	20	45	29
28. Maintain a climate conducive to good personnel relations?	—	1	1	16	81	1	1	5	31	62
29. Maintain adequate personnel records?	1	2	15	32	50	7	4	20	32	37
30. Conduct faculty meetings?	—	1	12	33	54	—	1	10	35	54
31. Conduct surveys of personnel needs?	—	3	24	40	32	3	8	28	37	24
32. Cooperate closely with supervisory and administrative personnel?	—	—	4	27	69	—	1	7	26	65
33. Assist the individual staff member to improve his professional competency?	1	1	7	36	55	1	2	19	44	34
34. Make recommendation as to the number and type of personnel needed to staff the school unit?	—	1	13	31	55	1	4	23	24	47
35. Assist in selection of personnel?	—	—	9	30	61	7	12	15	23	43
36. Answer letters of recommendation?	—	2	18	34	46	1	4	14	32	50
37. Participate in the retention, transfer, and dismissal of personnel?	—	1	10	35	53	3	5	19	29	43
38. Establish a professional library and expedite its use?	—	2	18	46	34	6	10	39	32	13

DUTY	DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE					FREQUENCY OF PERFORMANCE				
	None	Little	Average	More than average	Extreme	Never	Rarely	Some-times	Often	Very fre-quently
39. Serve as liaison between visitors to building and school personnel?	—	1	18	43	37	—	2	22	43	33
40. Prepare schedules of staff duties?	—	1	14	28	57	—	1	5	27	67
41. Coordinate activities of departments, areas, and groups to promote efficiency?	—	2	10	46	42	2	5	19	37	36
42. Guide and lead personnel in public relations activities?	—	1	12	38	49	2	3	24	35	36
In the area of MANAGEMENT, do you, as a principal,										
43. Study the problems of the school unit as a basis for improving the management of the school?	—	1	15	36	48	1	4	20	39	36
44. Serve as the custodian of all property assigned to the school unit and establish procedures to protect the property from loss, misuse, or damage other than ordinary use?	—	1	12	32	56	1	3	7	37	52
45. Prepare the annual budget for the school unit and submit it to the superintendent for approval?	5	7	24	27	37	39	12	8	11	30
46. Formulate administrative procedures and designate policies for the operation of the school unit as compatible with district policy?	—	1	13	37	49	2	7	16	38	37
47. Maintain adequate school records which conform to the state laws and local board of education policies?	—	—	5	21	74	—	1	2	21	76
48. Control and oversee outside use of the building?	7	6	19	36	38	7	9	15	32	37
49. Submit inventory and requisitions for supplies, equipment, and repairs as needed?	—	1	11	33	55	—	—	6	24	70
50. Distribute materials received?	1	6	16	31	46	1	3	10	25	60
51. Serve as building book custodian?	2	6	21	25	46	2	4	7	21	66
52. Sign all checks from school activity fund and approve all expenditures from that fund?	7	7	18	24	43	20	3	5	14	58
53. Serve as an avenue of communication from school to parents and from administration to teachers?	—	—	7	27	66	—	—	3	33	64

DUTY	DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE					FREQUENCY OF PERFORMANCE				
	None	Little	Average	More than average	Extreme	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very frequently
54. Coordinate timing and needs of cafeteria, janitorial, and teaching staff?	—	2	16	40	43	5	2	15	38	40
55. Organize for future teacher's visitation in own building?	6	11	37	23	23	29	21	21	15	15
56. Assist teachers with discipline?	—	1	13	30	55	—	1	16	33	50
57. Act as a sounding board for new ideas from teachers?	—	—	14	39	47	—	2	10	51	38
58. Control distribution of advertising materials, or solicitations in keeping with district policy?	1	11	15	31	43	5	5	14	31	45
59. Keep accurate accounting records as required by the board and the superintendent?	—	—	11	18	70	—	—	5	20	75
60. Supervise student registration (census, AGR cards, correct coding and placement)?	1	1	10	19	70	1	1	7	15	76
61. Organize the staff so that each member understands his role, authority, and responsibility?	—	—	4	26	70	—	—	5	29	66
62. Maintain an individual awareness of educational goals typical of a purpose-based administrative unit?	—	—	15	47	38	2	3	18	52	25
63. Schedule curricular and co-curricular activities, including opening and closing the school?	1	2	17	35	46	2	3	13	36	46
64. Establish an efficient system of plant upkeep and maintenance?	1	2	15	42	40	8	10	13	45	24
65. Follow a system of classifying and accounting for property and material?	—	2	22	38	38	5	7	22	33	34
66. Coordinate the transportation of students to and from the building?	8	7	28	33	23	22	25	18	19	15
67. Supervise the collection and disbursement of pupil funds?	2	11	23	28	36	10	10	12	31	37
In the area of COMMUNITY RELATIONS, do you, as a principal,										
68. Stimulate wholesome personal relationships among pupils, parents, teachers, and other staff members?	—	—	5	19	77	—	—	7	37	55
69. Cooperate with community groups that are seeking similar objectives for children?	—	2	13	31	56	1	2	17	35	45

DUTY	DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE					FREQUENCY OF PERFORMANCE				
	None	Little	Average	More than average	Extreme	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very frequently
70. Publicize and interpret school policy to public?	—	—	13	28	59	2	5	27	34	32
71. Secure community resources for school program?	2	1	23	46	28	4	8	35	40	14
72. Act as liaison person between staff and patrons?	—	1	11	36	53	—	2	11	43	44
73. Establish adequate communication with students?	—	1	11	31	57	—	—	14	49	37
74. Work with parent organizations?	—	1	13	33	54	—	2	12	31	54
75. Review accuracy and possible effects of releases to public information media?	—	4	15	33	48	6	9	29	29	28
76. Begin public relations in the classroom?	—	—	11	28	61	1	3	16	39	41
77. Make opportunities for patrons to observe their school in action?	—	—	9	40	51	1	5	14	34	46
78. Encourage parent-teacher conferences for the betterment of the child?	—	—	5	22	73	—	—	5	38	57
79. Schedule adult education activities to explain new programs or courses?	2	5	26	47	19	14	24	26	26	10
80. Seek community resources for curriculum enrichment?	—	3	25	44	38	3	13	38	34	12
81. Serve as or obtain building chairman for Community Chest, Red Cross, or other local fund drives?	7	17	34	15	28	11	16	21	19	33
82. Cooperate with Boy Scout, Girl Scout, and Boys' Club officials in recruiting and in distribution of information?	1	8	35	23	33	2	10	18	32	38
83. Affiliate with and become active in church and civic groups?	2	—	14	31	53	2	2	10	31	56

THE CHANGING (?) ROLE OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

GLENN L. IMMEGART AND ROY DEXHEIMER

FEW would argue that the role of the elementary principal is changing, or at least that it *ought* to be changing. Yet, how is it changing—a little or a lot, for good or bad? More relevant, is the role of the elementary principal really changing? [*]

We think not. It is our contention that elementary principals as a group are not changing their role and essentially never have.[1] This is not to say that some few courageous, forward-looking individuals have not behaved differently and consequently exhibited other than normative elementary principal behavior. But over-all, the elementary principalship remains what it has always been, characterized over the years by rather enduring qualities, more similar to their antecedents and early form than different from them.

The time is long overdue to take a look at the elementary principalship in its full complexity. Although dealing with the complexity of the job is not quite as easy as reducing it to an "essence" state such as that of the educational leader or statesman, a full analysis might be more productive if we really want to understand the demands placed on principals and how the role must change over time. Not only are generalities non-analytic in nature, but also they tend to be little affected by time or by changes in detail, no matter how pervasive these may be.

What is the full complexity, then, of the role of the elementary principal? What are the many diverse and interrelated job dimensions and functions? And what meaning do these have for a "changing" role?

There are, of course, a number of ways to answer such questions. We can look to the research and findings of numerous studies on the elementary principalship. Or we can just sit back and logically analyze what an elementary principal *ought* to do. However, each of these approaches, the pure inductive or pure deductive, has its shortcomings. Therefore a middle ground—or a combination of the two—might be the best way to proceed. This way our analysis is tied to reality and not limited solely to the facts from existing empirical studies.

If we start with a look at research, several facts are evident. Studies tell us that elementary principals attend to a variety of tasks and that successful elementary principals are characterized by high work output.[2]

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[*] For a comprehensive discussion of the changing role of the elementary school principal, see the April and May 1968 issues of *The National Elementary Principal.*

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They work with people—with individuals and with groups, with children and staff and parents and central office personnel; they work with goals and purposes; they work with the school program; they work with educational materials and facilities; they work with budget and funds; and they work with many other kinds of things. In one recent study, the task categories (in order of frequency) were administration, staff personnel, pupil services, school community relations, instructional program, business management, record keeping (files), setting goals, and negotiations.[3] Another study, dealing with stress in the educational organization, revealed working with people in general and personnel relations in particular as crucial dimensions of the principal's job.[4]

Obviously, the elementary principal does a great many things. He operates an educational unit and, to a degree, is thereby autonomous and controlling. He works with people both as individuals and as groups, both within *and* without the school setting. He also works with numerous aspects of the educational machine: programs, materials, facilities, teachers, students, and so forth. Finally, as any administrator must, he works at considerable miscellany or what-have-you. Possibly we could call this administrativia—and this in and of itself takes time (for example, putting on bandages, soothing hurt feelings, cleaning up messes, and so forth).

On the basis of the preceding data, along with more subjective analysis of written cases dealing with the principalship, and on the basis of logically analyzing the job, we can say that the elementary principalship has some six basic dimensions. The job is, in fact:

Administrative
Educational
Social
Political
Professional
Personal

Interestingly, we have always given more or less indirect attention to these dimensions in analyzing the elementary principalship. Seldom do we give attention to all of them at once *and* in relation to each other. But any effort to make sense of the elementary principal's role must go beyond taking a pet idea or concern, such as instructional leadership or educational statesmanship, or for that matter any other convenient approach. This is simply because the elementary principal's role must encompass *all* of these dimensions.

The "facts" of what principals do indicate clearly that the job is first *administrative*. The principalship is the legitimized headship of a social organization. As such, it is concerned with organizational purposes, plans, maintenance, and resources. The job functions to insure that the organization (school) does something.

Second, the job is *educational*. The organization's job is education. The main "reason for being" for any school principal is to see that children are educated. This does not mean, by the way, literally doing the teaching himself.

Third, the job is *social*. The elementary principal works with staff, clients, constituents, central office personnel, other principals, and people in a wide variety of organizations (for example, the PTA) and agencies (such as welfare) in discharging his duties.

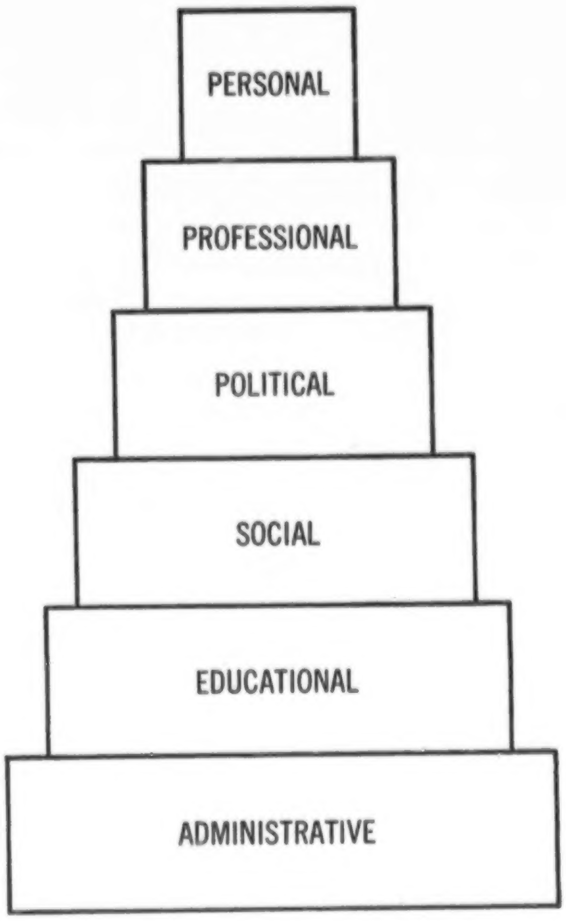
Fourth, the job is *political*. It is more and more apparent that the elementary principal works with other public agencies (remember that the elementary principal works in a *public* school) such as the police, the courts, social welfare and health groups, as well as civic interest groups. Also, as state and federal programs for the handicapped and disadvantaged are implemented, elementary principals often find themselves working with levels of government other than local. And even more important, the elementary principal is now in the position of directly seeking support for programs in his building.

Fifth, the job is *professional*. The job makes a unique organizational and societal contribution and requires special skills, talent, capacities, and training. (The complexity of this evolving conception of the principalship argues this point well.) Elementary principals must recognize a concern for the practice of "principaling" and the well-being of principals per se.

Finally, the elementary school principalship is *personal*. It is an occupational pursuit, hopefully of courageous, committed people who can contribute to society and to their own personal fulfillment by administering schools. By engaging in such work these people meet their own goals, contribute to others, and realize personal achievement.

The dimensions identified can now be structured hierarchically (quite similar to the "needs" in the classic Maslow pyramid) in order to portray graphically the complexity of the elementary principal's role:

DIMENSIONS and FUNCTIONS of the PRINCIPALSHIP



Dimensions	Functions
PERSONAL	1. Meets own goals 2. Realizes individual achievement 3. Makes individual contribution possible 4. Encourages creativity
PROFESSIONAL	1. Establishes job contribution 2. Advances practice 3. Enhances job value
POLITICAL	1. Secures support for the school 2. Formulates and updates school goals 3. Serves as liaison with governmental agencies 4. Serves as liaison with district central office
SOCIAL	1. Works with students 2. Works with constituents 3. Relates to other organizations and agencies 4. Relates to society
EDUCATIONAL	1. Develops and implements program 2. Develops and deploys staff 3. Provides physical facilities for instruction 4. Assesses effects of school program
ADMINISTRATIVE	1. Defines purposes 2. Determines organization 3. Guides planning 4. Secures and allocates resources

From the pyramid, we can see the job is first administrative, then educational, social, political, professional, and personal, in that order. Simple as this perspective seems, it goes beyond the numerous and more narrow conceptions of the elementary principalship. It relates the rather common dimensions of the job and focuses explicitly on two undertreated dimensions (the political and professional) and one seldom-treated dimension (the personal). Furthermore, it logically places the administrative-educational dimensions in perspective by holding that the job dimension hierarchy operates as does Maslow's hierarchy of needs and that success at one level is essential for success at the next higher level. This, in itself, has implications for the role of the elementary principal.

To illustrate this point directly: the elementary principal must first discharge the administrative aspects of his job successfully. Then he is free to discharge the educational demands of his job. In turn, he can entertain and achieve each subsequent level (dimension) of functioning. Seldom can an elementary principal operate successfully at any higher level of the pyramid until his functioning at all lower levels is adequate. Put another way, until elementary principals can put out the brush fires (administrativia), implement effectively a basic, sound educational program, and work competently with people, they cannot think "great thoughts" about important problems or about the directions their schools should take.[5]

However, at this point, the role dimension model is still generic and subject to some of the criticisms we voiced earlier regarding current generalized role conceptions. The scheme needs greater specificity. To make it more specific and to convey more adequately the inherent complexity of the elementary principalship, we can now turn to the "functions" implied by each level or dimension of the related scheme.

Administrative functions of the principalship are: to see that school purposes and goals are defined; to determine and maintain an organizational system to pursue these goals; to generate plans to achieve these goals; and to secure and allocate the necessary human and material resources needed for achieving the goals.

The *educational* functions of the elementary principalship are: to develop, implement, and refine a viable school program; to develop and deploy the full complement of staff toward the ends of this program; to see that appropriate facilities and materials are implemented for the school program; and to assess and monitor the effects of the educational program on clients, staff, and constituents. In a sense, these educational functions are the translation or implementation of the basic administrative functions in terms of the educational goals of a particular educational organization, the elementary school.

Social functions of the elementary principalship are: to work with, and toward the good of, students; to work with parents and citizens; to cooperate with other interested and involved organizations and agencies; and to relate the school program to its societal context—local community, state, and nation.

The *political* functions of the elementary principalship are: to secure and foster moral and financial support for the school (from central office, fund-granting institutions, and society in general); to seek funding for special programs in terms of available governmental and philanthropic grants; to review (and update) school goals and objectives; and to coordinate the school's program and efforts with those of other governmental agencies and units.

Professionally, the elementary principal's function is: to help establish the unique organizational contribution of the building level school administrator; to advance the practice of the principal's job through skillful, committed discharge of duties; and, in every way possible, to enhance the value of the principalship as an occupational pursuit.

Finally, the *personal* functions of the principalship are: to enable the principal to realize his own personal occupational and service goals; to provide a means for individual achievement and contribution to the profession and society; and to allow for some measure of expression of individual talent and creativity. This represents self-actualization, the highest of man's aspirations.[6]

Together these dimensions and functions seem to offer a conceptualization that underscores the need for a truly *changing* role for the elementary principalship (unless, of course, elementary principals already can, and do, effectively function at all levels of the role or job dimension hierarchy). The scheme provides a comprehensive, interrelated framework for analyzing the elementary principal's job, attending appropriately to its full complexity and diversity of functions. It is hoped that this framework, as diagramed on page 41, provides a viable scheme for directing attention to what the job must become.

One remaining question should be raised: what meaning does all this have for principals seeking to meet the changing demands of their professional role?

The answer is that elementary principals need first to be aware of the full complexity of their job. Then they need to refine necessary skills and competencies at every level of operation in the job hierarchy, attending to each job dimension in order of its relative importance. As they are able to function skillfully at more and more levels of hierarchy, their professional job contribution will be enhanced.

There is no panacea in this conception of the elementary principalship. But there is an indication that principals ought to do something to begin behaving differently in light of the *totality* of their job. In this way, and only in this way, will a really changing role be evinced.

To illustrate this implication directly, Joseph Cronin, in a *Phi Delta Kappan* article dealing with the elementary principalship and its relationship to school district negotiations with teachers, observes that building principals have been "left out" of this process either because "(1) they have neither been invited nor have they volunteered for service on the bargaining team," or "(2) they have not insisted on their right to assist with [the] school boards' preparations for negotiations." [7]

We can speculate that elementary principals are not invited because, by virtue of continuing to attend to the mundane things that have occupied them over the years, they have exhibited few competencies that would qualify them as valuable experts to *either* side in negotiations. We can also speculate that principals reinforce such feeling in that they neither volunteer nor demand a vital role in negotiations. In any event, lack of action regarding relevant activities along with general apathy do little to spark a change in the elementary principal's role.

A need exists simply for principals who can entertain and cope effectively with the full scope and complexity of their job. Principals must also interpret and reinterpret the demands of youth, the profession, and society in terms of relative strength and emphases for the dimensions and functions of a total conception of the elementary principal's role, and behave accordingly.

In other words: behave *differently;* be guided by action. Perhaps the best slogan for principals in the demanding years ahead is "be as courageous and active as you can." Just as all true leaders need to be audacious,[8] so should elementary principals if they want to make sense of the necessity of "changing" their role. In being as courageous and active as possible, elementary principals should also be as successful as possible. To do this, they will need to be cognizant of, and skillful in discharging, the full scope of their job.

FOOTNOTES

1. Such a pessimistic view has also been advanced by Joseph M. Cronin in "School Boards and Principals—Before and After Negotiations." *Phi Delta Kappan* 49: 123-27; November 1967.

2. Hemphill, John; Griffiths, Daniel; and Frederiksen, Norman. *Administrative Performance and Personality.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1962.

3. A subanalysis of the data from Glenn Immegart, "Systems Theory and Taxonomic Inquiry into Organizational Behavior in Education," in Daniel Griffiths (editor), *Taxonomies of Organizational Behavior.* Skokie, Illinois: Rand McNally & Co., 1969. (In press)

4. Unpublished study on stress in educational organizations conducted by Glenn Immegart, Warren Lasell, and Philip Rusche of the College of Education, The University of Rochester, 1965.

5. See Gross, Neal, and Herriott, Robert. "The EPL of Elementary Principals—A Study of Executive Professional Leadership." *National Elementary Principal* 45: 66-71; April 1966.

6. According to A. H. Maslow in *Motivation and Personality.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1954.

7. See footnote 1.

8. Brameld, Theodore. "What Education Fosters a Larger View of Man" in Robert E. Ohm and William G. Monahan (editors), *Educational Administration—Philosophy in Action.* Norman, Oklahoma: The University of Oklahoma, 1965.

Supervision

SUPERVISING FOR SUPER VISION

JOHN T. MALLAN
AND FRANK CREASON

WHAT does the word supervision mean to the classroom teacher? The attitude of many teachers toward supervision can be exemplified by the following interview with a teacher.

Q. What is your reaction when we use the term supervision?

A. Negative.

Q. What do you mean?

A. Well, I see the supervisor as an arm of the central office. He's just one more hurdle I have to encounter when he comes to the room.

Q. Do you see him as an administrator?

A. Why not? He checks on whether or not I'm following the prescribed material. He checks discipline. He checks classroom physical arrangements. He evaluates my teaching.

Q. You don't think your teaching should be evaluated?

A. I didn't say that. I'm saying that it is a game of cat and mouse. We're told that the supervisor's job is to help us do a better job. Yet, we know very well that he's rating us. He doesn't know why we do what we do; he passes quick judgments—judgments that are really no help!

Q. Can you give me an example?

A. Last year the supervisor came into the room and I was working primarily with one student. I had a dialogue with the student that ran about five minutes. After the class was over, the supervisor criticized me for pushing this one youngster too hard. Had he known the situation he would have realized that this was the first time this particular child had even offered to exchange ideas. To my mind, it was worth the effort to try to keep him involved.

At any rate, most of the time the supervisor really doesn't see our teaching. We "psych" him out. When he comes to the building, the word is passed around. When he comes into our rooms, we give him what we think he wants to see.

Q. Do you want help in improving your teaching?

A. If you mean do I want to do a better job with the students, the answer is yes.

Q. This raises two immediate questions in my mind: 1) What kind of help do you want? 2) How can this help best be given?

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A. We want someone to act as a sounding board—someone to bounce ideas off. We want someone who doesn't make us admit that we don't know; someone who will not perceive a question as a sign of weakness. In other words, we want the same kind of relationship we have with some of our fellow teachers. Some of us really go at it sometimes. We discuss what worked, what should have been done differently—the real goofs. We share some articles we read. This is a real help.

But each teacher works in a particular classroom situation, and the situation itself restricts us as to when we can work with each other and what we can do. We need help to make sense out of what we are doing and to improve what we are doing.

Q. How could this kind of help be given?

A. I don't know for sure. It would seem that several factors are involved. Obviously the person helping would not be responsible for evaluation. If the person helping and the teacher being helped could accept an equal status and regard a group of students or a classroom as not "mine" or "his" but "ours," I think the major problem would be eased. I'm reluctant to use a play on words, but a real supervisor is one who helps the teacher work on building a *super* vision.

Q. If I understand you, you see this *super* vision concept as a type of team teaching effort where the supervisor is an actual member of a teaching team and shares in the responsibility for the students. Yet, I think that his role on the team should be different. What do you think?

A. Yes, I think it would be. For example, every time I prepare a lesson plan, select certain experiences I want the youngsters to have, or work out a unit or a new approach, I know that what I am really doing is making a judgment. I'm saying that *this* will work better than *that.* There is the constant need to make choices. Some choices I have time to reflect on; for example, when I make the plan for action. But, sometimes during the action (the teaching) I have to decide when and how to shift to something different. The lesson itself, as it is implemented, modifies the plan. Theoretically I know that my choices should be based on information. It is my job to tie the findings and information from the academic fields together in an attempt to apply these to teaching. Every time I make a choice or series of choices leading to a lesson plan I hit about every discipline in the book: philosophy, sociology, social psychology, child development, learning theory, substantive areas, and so forth.

A good lesson plan should be a thoroughly thought-out plan of action which utilizes fields of information and findings to arrive efficiently and effectively at some selected end. I see the supervisor as a team member who helps me fight through all this. He would be a constant in-service agent working with teachers. A lot would depend on what kind of rapport he had. But this is true of any team effort.

Q. I'm afraid you would have trouble selecting such a person.

A. True. But we have the same difficulties in selecting teachers. Not all teachers work equally well with all children and in all situations. It is conceivable that the person selected to help a team or a group of teachers would vary according to the situation. I don't see this as an insurmountable problem, especially if the teachers view the service as coming from a fellow "teacher" and not as coming from one who is used by the central office as an arm of evaluation for teacher rating.

The preceding comments reflect a position taken by many of the teachers with whom we work. To teachers, "supervision" as a term conjures up all sorts of negative connotations which apparently stem from their experiences with supervisors. When we put aside the term "supervision" and ask teachers what kind of help they want, their positive suggestions clearly indicate that supervisory activity is justified largely in terms of what it does to improve teaching. The two key factors seem to be that:

- Supervision is a form of continual in-service responsibility in which the supervision becomes both an end and a means for teachers. In this sense, it is a service, an in-service function for teachers.
- Teacher rating and evaluation are not the type of help desired by the teachers.

An Experiment with Case Studies

Assuming that supervision has an in-service aspect, we made an attempt with teachers in two public school systems and with a university pre-service program to use the case study approach to help teachers focus on an extended view of *super* vision. The case study approach was used in one situation as a tool to help teachers view some of their school problems in a broader context. In another situation, it was used as a diagnostic tool to help teachers identify the problems they were encountering in trying to initiate a new program. In the third situation, the case study approach was used to introduce some necessary thinking tools which encouraged students to view education in a larger perspective.

In all three situations, the use of a case study obviated all immediate threats to those particular people taking part in the session. Yet, in the first two situations, which involved public school personnel, the move was constantly from the abstract to the immediate situation and then back to the abstract. It is the two public school situations which concern us at this point.

How does one help teachers to develop their own *super* vision; that is, to move back and forth from the particular to the larger scene noting the interrelatedness of the entire social system, to become increasingly aware of the implications of their teaching, to live with the fact that educational problems are not a result of a single cause, to expand their view of the profession, and to be involved in the decision-making processes? In other words, can an in-service effort be directed toward *super* vision?

Can a case study act as a sounding board where "not knowing for sure" is the rule and not the exception? Can it allow an openness of expression, an opening of alternatives, a projection of consequences, a method of analysis? Moreover, can it allow all these things within a framework which is non-threatening and which has nothing to do with teacher rating? Can the effective use of a case study work within the system but outside the administrative structure by allowing different kinds of leadership to emerge at different times, regardless of such factors as positions, status, and prestige?

The elementary school principals involved in the two public schools agreed that life is constant movement within problem situations. This movement would be more tolerable if it were a linear type of behavior—solving one problem, moving to the next, and so on. But the processes involved are complex and the problems do not lend themselves to such systematic solutions.

The principals in our study agreed that a decision-making process includes clarification of issues, identifying an ends-means relationship, crystallizing alternatives, creating alternatives, and being aware (including making others aware) of the subsequent emerging problems which may be predicted from a solution of the one(s) at hand.

Any problem situation can serve as a case study. For example, one could use a school's action regarding the length of students' hair, or an issue involving desegregation or busing. The value of the case study lies in what is done with it. Obviously, the uses will vary with the ends-in-view that the administrator has in mind. A case study can be read as a report and thus imply some of the sticky areas of administration. It can be used for evaluative attempts.

Perhaps the case study is most vital when it acts as a commonly shared situation in which teachers attempt to unravel the complexities, to note the issues within the issue, to see the need for data, to project and predict. In other words, it is most vital when it serves to change a random attack into a reasonable and rational effort on the part of those involved.

The case study which follows was used as a "pilot" effort. Teachers were divided (according to building units) into groups of eight. Each group met in a separate classroom and each group was asked to discuss the case study. No leaders were assigned. Each group was asked to send one of its members to a central spot during the break so that each group's efforts could be made clear to the other groups.

Case Study

Trouble was brewing. You could sense it throughout the school—a bubbling excitement and tenseness were evident. Everybody seemed to know "something," and it was obvious that the pupils were aware of some impending crisis. The entire situation disturbed Miss DePaso for many reasons. Dr. Bigelow, her superintendent, had contacted her earlier in the day and had briefly informed her that her name had been brought up before the board of education meeting the previous night. It seemed that two or three board members had indicated some discontent with her teaching. Dr. Bigelow requested that she come to his office after school and suggested that she not mention this to anyone.

Mary DePaso had cause to be upset. The board was not too pleased with her teaching and she wasn't quite sure what was included in their appraisal of teaching. Certainly Dr. Bigelow would straighten this out. It bothered her that word had apparently leaked out.

Mary had a free period and she welcomed the chance to escape to the faculty room. She hoped to have an opportunity to at least identify the pieces of the puzzle, if not to put them together. When she walked into the room, she was confronted with an embarrassed silence on the part of her colleagues.

She poured some instant coffee and lighted a cigarette. Mrs. Iva

Bouche found difficulty in restraining herself.

"What do you plan to do, Miss DePaso?"

"I really don't know what it's all about," Mary replied. "But I am curious about how you people found out. I'm honestly in the dark."

Mrs. Bouche conceded that most of what she had heard was probably rumor. But Marcia Warner, the guidance counsellor, casually interjected some news.

"We had a meeting this morning, Mary. Obviously, Dr. Bigelow was reprimanded by the board for some of your indiscretions. All principals, supervisors, and department chairmen were called in and sat in the audience while the superintendent quizzed us on the use of text books. . . ."

"That's the point, Mary—teaching without a text. It's just not done!"

"But," Mary said, "what was the consensus of those at the meeting?"

Louella Lynch said that, as a group, the faculty had gone on record supporting the use of at least one text. This surprised Mary, and she told the others that her coordinator, Mr. Maselow, had told her early in the year that the use or non-use of specific texts was up to her. And, anyway, why hadn't this problem been brought up sooner? Everyone knew how she was handling the class. Why make an issue of it now, in March?

The bell rang and Mary headed for Dr. Bigelow's office, confident that Dr. Bigelow and Mr. Jansen, her building principal, would bring things into proper focus.

Both Dr. Bigelow and Mr. Jansen were there. Dr. Bigelow was just finishing a phone call which obviously was concerned with some problem regarding bus transportation. Mr. Jansen smiled at Mary and motioned for her to sit down.

Bigelow finished and turned to Jansen. "I tell you, Bill, people don't realize what a big business education has become. Thirty-five buses out three times a day. They almost run the school as well as determine curriculum."

Bigelow turned to Mary. "Miss DePaso, you're new to the system and I don't feel that I know you too well. However, Mr. Jansen informs me that you are a good, dependable worker and that the youngsters all seem to like you. All in all, you've done quite well this year. So I'm sure that this little suggestion which I am going to make won't cause any uneasiness on your part."

Bigelow went on to explain that some members of the school board had indicated that they felt that every teacher should have and use one basic text. He hastened to assure her that supplementary reading was desirable but *not* as a replacement for a single text. "As a matter of fact," Bigelow commented, "our coordinators seem to be in complete accord with the board's view."

Mary asked about *when* the coordinators had indicated this viewpoint and Bigelow told her about the morning meeting—a meeting necessary "to get policy straight in a democratic manner."

Mary frankly told Bigelow that this "small suggestion" did cause uneasiness on her part. "I feel that there is more to this than just the books or the use of a single text," she maintained. "It seems to me that you are questioning my way of teaching, that you're saying 'Look, you're not doing your job.' I'm curious. Just who were the members who indicated this displeasure and was it a majority opinion?"

Jansen shifted uneasily in his chair and Bigelow glanced at his watch. With mustered patience Bigelow explained that he did not feel that his revealing specific names or numbers would alleviate the difficulty. He also added that he personally felt that the board was making a sound point.

By this time Mary DePaso was more than a little upset. She addressed herself to Dr. Bigelow. "Both Mr. Maselow and Mr. Jansen, my coordinator and my building principal, knew all year how I was teaching. They knew it way back in September and I assumed that my teaching was quite satisfactory. Both these gentlemen have observed my classes, but I don't recall any board members having attended my classes. How can they come to a decision when they don't even know about the extensive paperback library in my classroom?"

To Mary it was obvious that such a library provided opportunity to provide for individual differences, different reading levels, and so on. She concluded her remarks by commenting that her teaching was "a more open-ended approach, allowing for individual differences and interests."

Dr. Bigelow felt obliged to make some justification. "Mr. Jansen and I talked this over this morning and we feel that a youngster really doesn't get a sense of security in your classes—security in terms of knowing specifically where he is going. And furthermore," he asked, leaning heavily on the desk, "how can you possibly evaluate knowledge when everybody is doing something different? Your tests don't have specific 'fact' questions. Well, as you say, your teaching is open-ended."

Mary recalled what Dr. Bigelow and Mr. Jansen had said when they had interviewed her for the position. They had said they viewed their positions as ones designed primarily to help the teacher teach, but she was confused as to where they now stood. She did feel that integrity prompted a reply to Bigelow.

"I'm not sure," she said, "that social studies ever guaranteed security in the sense that the students and the teacher always know specifically where they are going."

Bigelow interrupted. "In other words, Miss DePaso, you are saying that you don't know what the results of your teaching will be, and you are saying, are you not, that in your class accurate evaluation is impossible?"

Mary felt quite frustrated. Yes, in a sense, this was what she was saying but. . . . A fleeting thought crossed her mind. Again she addressed herself to Bigelow. "How do you know what my tests are like?" she asked. "To the best of my knowledge neither you nor the school board has seen them."

Bigelow countered with the point that the best public relations a school has is manifested through what the students say. He gave as an example T. Edgar Spocter's daughter, Diane. Spocter was not on the board but he was a leading executive in the local foundry. His daughter had been a traditional "A" student before coming into Mary's class—a drop to a "C" was disturbing. And Bigelow hastened to assure Mary that Spocter wasn't the only one. "This type of pressure can build up in a community."

Mary quickly countered with: "Yes, Diane can memorize exception-ally well, but she doesn't use her information." Bigelow, glancing again at his wristwatch and then at the wall clock, reminded Miss DePaso that she had admitted that her evaluation might not be accurate.

Mary's private thoughts took an interesting bounce at this point. Suppose Bigelow's wristwatch had not jibed with the wall clock. How would he evaluate which one was "off"?

"Actually, we don't have enough time to really argue this out, do we, Bill?" Bigelow allowed Jansen back into action. "But," turning to Mary, "the board feels it must know that you are covering the material that is basic. You don't use a single basic text, so how does the board know that all your students are getting the essential knowledge? We have to be able to demonstrate achievement. After all, the public is part of public education, you know." Jansen nodded his approval.

There was a pause, with each person in the room seeming to be waiting for someone to express some sort of an agreeable compromise. Mary broke the silence. She offered to go before the board of education and attempt to explain her position. Bigelow agreed that this might be a possibility but denied the wisdom of such a move at this time. A bond issue was coming up for vote very shortly and "everyone knows how important it is to get it through this time." In fact, so important was the passing of the bonds, that it almost became a "professional obligation" not to indicate any manifestation of internal conflict at this time. He asked Mary to move slowly. "If your way is right," he said, "we'll eventually come to it."

Mary decided not to go directly to the board but she did see Mr. Maselow the following day. He claimed that all the teachers were involved and suggested that she take it before the faculty association meeting to be held the next week. Dr. Bigelow, Mr. Jansen, and all the other building principals were members of the association and attended the meetings. Mary presented her case, after which Dr. Bigelow asked for the floor to address the group "as a faculty member and not as an administrator." He then reminded the teachers of the pending bond issue and of professional obligations to the "larger, over-all purpose of education." He suggested that they discuss the matter in a social studies meeting. "Naturally, man wants to avoid conflict. Why endanger the public school potential by bringing its problems (those that can be solved internally) before the public?"

Use of the Case Study

Now let us take a look at how the case study was put into use. When the group leaders met, they felt two key ideas emerged:

1. It was hard to "keep focus" on this particular case study. Their minds kept sliding back to their own immediate situations. This was both hoped for and anticipated.
2. Each individual group with no influence from the others seemed to want more "structure." This was not anticipated.

At this point, a definition of "structure" seemed important. To the administrators, "structure" meant the teachers wanted "set" answers, cut-and-dried situations, and were generally not sophisticated enough to handle a non-structured or loose framework situation.

Fortunately, the teachers were asked to give their definition of "structure" and while it surprised the administrators a bit, they were able to reassess their own thinking and evaluations. To the teachers, "structure" meant a more effective analysis of the case study. Significantly this implied a request for a new way of approaching *all* aspects of educational problems from the classroom presentation on one end of the scale to practicing the flag salute for the next PTA meeting.

Later a group of teachers met and used the same case study among themselves. As a result, they found a real means of opening communication lines and brain-storming among themselves. Since the administration's position in this case was not concrete on specific teaching methods, the teachers were able to advance many new ideas in terms of lesson planning, new approaches in reading assignments, better use of available audiovisual aids, and developing different but applicable case studies for future use.

Most important, the entire process of the case study as a non-threatening avenue toward better communication pointed up a *super* vision which interrelated all functionings of the school. Knowing that each of them tackled the same problems led to a better understanding, deeper empathy, more decisive problem solving, and a better general professional attitude on the part of teacher-to-teacher plus teacher-to-administration.

After working with the case study, the teacher group suggested that an effective utilization of the method would be to break their thinking down into ten different points:

1. Establish the problem
2. Assemble known facts
3. Condense all specific issues into one or two general areas
4. Define roles and role expectations
5. Decide on what additional information would be helpful
6. List questions to which past experiences can be applied
7. List questions to which there is no appeal to past reference or experience
8. Decide what alternate action possibilities are available or could be created
9. Anticipate consequences (future problems) that may develop
10. Understand and acknowledge your own emotional reactions to the problem.

Some Tentative Conclusions

By not blocking communication with a term which appears to have negative connotations and by replacing the descriptive term with a question which asks the teachers what kind of help is wanted and how it could be implemented, the perspective of "supervision" as a goal-oriented activity takes on several new dimensions.

Just as with any problem, its complexities can muddy its analysis. Moreover, an analysis is no guarantee of an answer or a solution. However, at least the areas of concern have been made clear. This is a crucial first step. It helps to make the fundamental issues emerge, and it is only after such knowledge is acquired that productive planning can take place.

The activities needed should reflect the view that *super* vision is an activity done both by teachers and administrators. Such *super* vision can be encouraged through situations or case studies and not necessarily through an assigned person who is charged with such functions.

Schools need persons who see to it that such situations are not only allowed but encouraged. Such a person is a teacher's teacher. He should view himself and be viewed by others as a teacher and not as an evaluative arm of the central office.

Often we say that a major part of the curriculum is what the individual teacher does. It should be possible to say that a major part of *super* vision is also what the individual teacher does. Better teaching can result from the teacher participating in developing his own *super* vision. More effective aid to instruction can result when classroom teachers and the principal work together in developing understanding and appropriate actions to meet the specific goals, problems, and conditions of particular class and school situations. These efforts can be made impersonal by the case study approach.

HOW ARE THINGS GOING, MISS SMITH?

LEONARD B. FINKELSTEIN

IF your days are as crowded with reports, conferences, and minor emergencies as mine seem to be lately, then you probably find yourself neglecting one of our most vital functions as principals—teacher supervision. But if you wonder how you can be so many things to so many people, you might want to try a technique I have used to make those rare contacts with teachers more purposeful.

I had been accused (and justifiably, I might add) of always seeming to be on the run. Teachers who wanted to ask a question hesitated because I seemed ready to keep moving. My office door was always open, but I was rarely in the office. An appointment could be made, of course, but the problem wasn't really that important. It could wait—and in most cases, it did just that. Some of the problems were important and found their way to me later; others just melted away. But in any case, my elusive ways probably did to the teachers something that I had always preached against. My words returned to trouble me deeply: "Every child has to feel some degree of satisfaction in his work every day; he needs your praise, your concern, and your love." And I had missed the boat completely.

My path to rebuilding the relationships which I had neglected was a fairly simple exercise in good communication. I asked the teachers to write a short report each month giving their answers to three questions about their classes. After reading each set of comments, I added my own reactions which had to be based upon some deliberate and insightful observations. Then each teacher and I sat for an uninterrupted talk about those aspects of teaching which were really important to him. I had the time (it's really there if you give it priority) to listen, to discuss, to praise, to suggest. And what wonderful things emerged from the written reports and informal chats.

This dialogue which we have established provides an opportunity to build each teacher's confidence and to share with him the most pressing problems in her class. It becomes possible for us to work together toward establishing a classroom atmosphere in which each child can feel the love and praise and genuine concern of a teacher. And it helps me to know the teachers better.

Some of the reports are short and stiff, but they say something. Others are creative and make it possible to sense the teacher's com-

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passion, frustration, or optimism. When we think we know something about a particular class or teacher, the report and conference may tend to refocus our attention.

The report that follows needs no explanation. It was written by a first-grade teacher, Miss Smith, who writes with much more talent than her principal. Through this experience of sharing, we can both grow a bit and try to help some of these children whom she describes.

Andrew Hamilton School

MONTHLY CONFERENCE REPORT

1. State your general reactions to the class as a whole. (Interest in learning, routines, ability to work independently, control, evidences of good citizenship, cooperation between pupils, social atmosphere, etc.)

Every child in my class is inadequate in the area of human relations. They laugh at each other, belittle each other, hit each other, steal from each other, tattle about each other, mutilate each other's papers, and rejoice when a child "is reported." They are brazenly indifferent to authority and when brought up short, burst into "on and off" tears and loud recriminations and laments.

Every child in my class is outbidding the others for attention. If a child is not in the limelight honorably, he will get there dishonorably. It's all the same to him so long as he is the center of attention. They love to wave their hands wildly and call out, "I know, I know," especially those who do not know. If they're not called on, they pout or toss themselves about in anger. When a particular irrelevant answer is rejected, a dozen children in succession will repeat the same answer. When I am addressing myself to a child who has failed, trying to help him correct his error, as likely as not, he will turn his back on me and talk to the person behind him or he may take out a toy and show it to his neighbor. He is going to be important, come what may. My class, too, is blessed with a goodly number of thumb- and four-finger-suckers and children who must play with a pencil (under the desk) and children who must tear paper to bits (under the desk).

How does one hold the interest and attention of such a class? It is not easy. But I'll tell you about the time a week ago when I had 100 per cent attention for at least fifteen minutes. It was the only time in the whole term when I complimented the "paper tearer." He was the first one ready, and for the first and only time sat still, spellbound. I was reading a story chosen by the class in preference to a story about a policeman. The story I read was brought in by the "pencil holder" who is also a "squirmer." He sat still without the comfort of the pencil and listened. The story was (excuse the expression) fiction. It was ridiculous, uninteresting, stupid, silly, and boring. The children hung breathlessly on every word. I could hardly wait to reach the end because I wanted to probe the mystery of their perfect attention. When I was finished, before I could ask my question, they answered almost as one voice, "We saw it on TV—'Fireball X15.'". . . I give up!

How are we progressing scholastically? Five children have struggled up painfully and with difficulty to Level 3 in reading and arithmetic. Of the remaining ten, there are eight who, in spite of their overwhelming resistance to the discipline of learning and the discipline of self-control and the discipline of cooperation, have somehow caught a faint and glimmering idea of what has been going on around them. They are still, however, at Level 1 in reading and arithmetic. The ninth child came to me on January 18. He has defective hearing, defective vision, and has been excluded several weeks for ringworm of the scalp. He cannot read, write, nor count. The tenth is too angry to do anything but play with his pencil and tear paper to bits.

This is a sad, sad picture of a sorry class. It is a class that keeps trying me out over and over again to see if I really mean what I say. Their attempts fail, but they keep trying. I wonder what the results would be if this perseverence and persistence were applied scholastically. I don't have an answer, but I am willing to go off on a tangent. These children do not get enough rest nor enough proper food—too much candy, gum, soda, and just a drop of coffee to flavor the milk. Their play is too wild and unrestrained. They can't depend on parental standards; one day it is overindulgence and the next day, for the same offense, cruel severity. They come into the classroom from a world which treats them with indifference. Indifference is the only constant in their lives. Indifference is the word for my class. They couldn't care less about the good that comes their way—or the bad.

Last week a psychiatrist from Harvard, addressing a group of students at Haverford College, declared that one of the greatest problems facing the world is its unwanted children. The following statement might come as a shock to their parents, but I believe that I have 25 unwanted children in my class.

2. Names of children who warrant particular consideration at this time. (Behavior patterns, poor effort, outstanding ability, health problems, parental problems, attendance, punctuality, etc.)

William Jones: foster child—the angry paper tearer—antagonistic, defiant, immature, speech defect—steals—little or no progress—psychological study requested.

Thomas Stone: foster child—immature—cries before, during, and after hurt.

Evan Eagan: defective vision and hearing, ringworm of scalp—little or no progress—psychological study requested.

Roger Gray: playful and immature—speech defect—progress and behavior unsatisfactory—Mother thinks all problems would be solved if the teacher would write a note. I have written notes and requested their return with her signature. They did not come back. I mailed her a report on Roger and told her I would send no more notes. Little or no improvement.

Joan Hartman: my top student—too bored to be bothered about anything but giggling and pushing others around.

Betty Porter: immature—accuses others of stealing even when she is caught red-handed.

Mary Long: temperamental—immature—pushes people around.

Wayne Crowell: pencil holder, squirmer, clown—Mother says he misses his father who is dead.

Terry Dennis: has moods—enjoys annoying and teasing others.

Richard Jordan: laughs constantly at others—cries and howls when he is corrected, wants to know "What I done?"

3. *What kinds of help or materials do you feel you need at this time to improve your teaching situation?*

Patience, understanding, forgiveness, a stout heart, and a commanding voice.

This is one report which might give the reader some idea of the concerns of Miss Smith. The thousands of Miss Smiths who have similar stories to tell are probably not heard from often enough or in enough depth. Reaching out for the teachers who need our help can be the key to better supervision, and I would recommend the monthly (or bi-monthly) conference report as a most revealing approach.

PROPOSAL FOR A PATTERN OF SUPERVISION

NATHAN STOLLER

ANY adult who has ever undertaken to develop skills and concepts under the guidance of a teacher is well aware that he must do something between lessons in order to make progress. This is no less true of the teacher himself. In fact, the professional growth of the classroom teacher is largely a personal problem because the teacher is observed by his educational supervisors during only a small fraction of the school year. In other words, he gets few "lessons" and so must do a lot of that "something" in between.

Of course, it is possible to argue that supervision is more than just observing the teacher in the classroom. There are, after all, meetings and conferences at which professional issues are discussed, and participation in these sessions may also lead to growth. Furthermore, a teacher may also learn from his colleagues and pupils. Nevertheless, it is still true that the teacher must be able to put into practice what he learns and he must do so without constant supervision. To improve his performance, he must be able to observe and evaluate his own practice in the classroom; he must sort out those aspects of his teaching behavior which should be retained, modify those which promise to be effective, and reject those which are ineffective. Principals and supervisors, who can actually observe only a small sample of a teacher's classroom, should help the teacher to acquire the necessary skills of analysis and self-improvement.

To accomplish this objective, I propose that the supervisor follow a particular series of steps. (The term "supervisor" is used in this article to include not only persons who are called supervisors but also principals.)

Agree on the lessons to be observed. The teacher and supervisor should agree on the lessons to be observed. Within the limitations of school schedules, it is suggested that at least initially the teacher be given free choice of the lessons to be observed. This gives the teacher an opportunity to "put his best foot forward." Obviously, if this "best foot" is somewhat out of step, then at least some of the other aspects of the teacher's performance may also need attention.

Take notes. The teacher should agree that the supervisor may take notes during the lesson. These notes will form one basis for a fruitful discussion during the follow-up conference. It would be desirable to have a more objective record of classroom activities. A tape recorder

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could be of use in many classrooms to provide a record of the oral interchanges between teacher and pupils. Far superior is a video tape recording in which both the sight and sound of the classroom may be objectively recorded. A few school districts are now using video tape recorders with good results. At Hunter College, there is a special closed-circuit television facility which has been used extensively for this purpose.[1] I have used this television facility for the supervision of student teachers and have directed the recording of lessons taught by regular classroom teachers to their own pupils.[2] The subjective reactions of student teachers and regular teachers to playbacks of their teaching performances have been indicative of the enormous potential for growth of such experience. However, these facilities are still not available in many school districts.

Write anecdotal records. I have found it profitable to write anecdotal records of lessons, noting the time at very frequent intervals, since sequence and duration are important elements in teaching. To do this effectively, it is valuable to have some kind of abbreviated notation system in order to simplify the mechanics of recording. In addition, I have noted in parentheses those items which particularly merit discussion at the follow-up conference.

Set up evaluation sessions. Evaluation sessions should follow each lesson at the earliest possible time, while the lessons are still fresh in the memories of both teacher and supervisor.

Establish a pattern for the follow-up conferences. Prior to the observation, the supervisor and teacher should agree on the conduct of the follow-up conference. The following pattern is suggested:

The teacher first describes the lesson in sequential order as though he had observed himself. He speaks of himself as "the teacher" or as Mr. ________, using his own name. The teacher includes whatever he regards as relevant to the verbal reconstruction of the lesson. However, the supervisor, using his notes, is also free to "fill out the picture" wherever he finds significant gaps in the narration. He may, however, choose only to record the gaps, since they may be a vital clue to the teacher's perception of teaching.

The teacher is now asked to say what he finds commendable in the lesson, with supporting data and logic, plus what he thinks merits adverse criticism and why. The supervisor records each of the negative and positive statements without comment, and these become part of the agenda for the next step in the conference. The rest of the agenda is drawn from the parenthetical notes made by the observer during the lesson.

At this point, the teacher ceases to refer to himself in the third person. Teacher and supervisor now begin on the agenda derived from the teacher's self-evaluation and from the supervisor's notes.

There are three key elements to this conference procedure, each of which requires both an elaboration and a defense:

- In order to learn to analyze his own performance when not being observed, the teacher must be able to recapture its essential details at the end of the school day. This is hardly a simple task. To do so with some degree of accuracy requires that the teacher observe himself and his pupils even while he is deeply engaged in classroom interaction.

Learning to do this not only has a salutary effect on the ability to "play back" the events, but more important, it forces the teacher to focus on the total pattern of classroom interaction as well as on his own role in it. Those familiar with the early instructional efforts of student teachers and beginning teachers can testify to the blindness with which these beginners pursue their prepared lesson plans. Their focus is inward, on the plans not on their pupils. In fact, even the most gross pupil reaction frequently goes unnoticed. Therefore, when teachers are obliged to provide a playback of the way in which they and their pupils have interacted, they have no choice but to make their focus outward rather than inward.

The second purpose for retelling the lesson is that two parties to a set of events cannot even begin an evaluation unless they can agree on what transpired. The teacher may well have his eye on irrelevant elements; his narration—with its inclusions, omissions, and emphases—may demonstrate to the supervisor that highest priority must be assigned to the development of a more productive point of reference for classroom interaction. The teacher may need help immediately not so much in restructuring classroom interaction but in perceiving it in a more professionally mature way. On the other hand, the observer may have misread the intent of the lesson and may be almost eager to tell the teacher how badly the lesson went. Since the teacher gives the playback first, the very pattern of inclusions, omissions, and emphases will reveal the teacher's goals. If the supervisor chooses to fill in what he regards as gaps or to correct the teacher's report in some other way, the teacher's reaction will indicate whether they are seeing the lesson in the same framework.

Students and colleagues who have been involved in the procedure outlined here generally question the use of the third person in the teacher's initial narrative. However, use of the pattern has demonstrated that teachers accept this role playing very early in the supervisory relationship. More important, it removes the personal element from a large segment (and also the *first* segment chronologically) of the conference. It avoids "I did this" and "I did it because . . . ."and raises the level of the conference to a discussion in which two professionals are talking about something in which each has a high stake. Other than testifying on the basis of extended experience, the author cannot "prove" that the use of the third person by the teacher leads to a less defensive and less personal discussion.

- Since the main purpose of this supervisory procedure is to help the teacher develop skill in self-evaluation, it is logical that the teacher be the first evaluator. This gives him practice in self-evaluation under the guidance of a person able to help him improve his evaluation skills. It is also most revealing of the teacher's basic philosophy of instruction. Asking a teacher, "What is your philosophy of instruction?" is not likely to be nearly as informative as inferring it from his comments about a lesson he himself has just taught. The former is merely a verbal commitment; the latter is an action commitment.

Structurally, the teacher's evaluation of the lesson provides the supervisor with important elements for the direct discussion in the third part of the conference. While the supervisor also brings his own observations to the conference, it is far more important to focus on the teacher's contribution in order to help him develop skill in self-supervision. One way of doing this is to examine and analyze the teacher's evaluation first.

- The last step in the conference is also the most significant. The supervisor should come to the interview with his own agenda drawn from the parenthetical notes he made during the lesson. The supervisor should have tentatively identified the elements in the teacher's instructional repertory which form the most severe obstacles in the way of professional growth. The obstacles should be seen from a general, rather than a specific, point of view.

To illustrate: An administrator had arranged for nurses to visit the school's four first-grade classes in order to serve as resource people for a special unit. For various reasons, the teachers were unable to confer with the nurses in advance. The result, in at least one room I observed, was that the teacher, the children, and the nurse were uncertain about the role the nurse was to play, about the information she could supply and how it should be presented, and about the purpose of having a resource person in the first place. The outcome for teacher and children was vague; the nurse will surely not volunteer so readily again for a similar role.

How should a supervisor who observed this lesson discuss it with the teacher? Obviously, he could discuss it in terms of specific events and suggest how this particular lesson might have been more effective. But since the lesson is now history, doing a "Monday morning quarterback" analysis is far less important than discussing the more general question: How can the teacher make effective use of adult consultants from the community? Attention should be directed to the broad principles of effective instruction which a teacher can apply in a variety of situations. Suggesting how a specific lession might have been more effective is not particularly valuable unless the teacher will be presenting many similar lessons in the future. Even then, many circumstances could arise to change the whole pattern of interaction. It is essential, therefore, to help the teacher draw from a specific lesson general guidelines to improve his instructional behavior.

My experience with the supervisory pattern outlined here indicates that it is a useful technique for helping teachers to improve their classroom performance and to become skilled in self-guidance and self-improvement. In using this method, the supervisor must give prime attention to the development of guidelines which will help the teacher to direct his own growth. Both he and the teacher must recognize that professional growth is largely a personal problem and then work together so that the teacher may learn to observe, analyze, evaluate, and improve his own instructional behavior with only limited guidance.

FOOTNOTES

1. Schueler, H., and Gold, M. G. "Video Recordings of Student Teachers." *Journal of Teacher Education* 15: 358-64; December 1964.

2. Stoller, N.; Lesser, G. S.; and Freedman, P. I. "A Comparison of Methods of Observation in Preservice Teacher Training." *AV Communication Review* 12: 177-97; Summer 1964.

OPERATION SET: SUPERVISION OF EXPERIENCED TEACHERS

BURTON E. ALTMAN

At Wisconsin State University at La Crosse, a project was conducted to provide experienced elementary teachers with intensive supervision in their classrooms by university staff personnel. Briefly, the program provided for classroom supervision of experienced teachers who were completing their master's degrees in elementary education. Launched as a pilot study, the project was developed as a departure from the traditional graduate program leading to a master's degree in elementary education. It was merely an idea made operational and did not have an objective instrument of evaluation. The participants were local area teachers, each teacher having over ten years of teaching experience and each nearing completion of the master's program. In lieu of writing a thesis or seminar paper, all of the teachers were engaged in student teaching on a graduate level.

The project is based on the hypothesis that if the classroom teacher is to embrace the knowledge being generated in his graduate program, then his training should be evaluated in the field. A corollary to this proposition might be that if the teacher is to become an agent of change, then he needs professional help in the field. The graduate teacher education project at La Crosse was established to explore these constructs.

The subjects for the project were recruited from a group of teachers enrolled at the University during the summer in a course in educational research, which was one of the culminating courses in the master's program in elementary education. In this particular course, eleven students were enrolled, seven of whom volunteered to take part in this project. The plan called for staff members from the university to supervise each teacher in his own classroom. Sensitive to the additional responsibilities that would be required of these teachers about to undergo a year of supervision, the graduate school withdrew the requirement of a seminar paper.

The candidates for the program were selected on the basis of three criteria: 1) the number of years of classroom teaching experience they possessed, 2) the nature of their teaching assignments, and 3) the proximity of the candidate's school to the university.

As conceived, the plan was to involve *experienced* teachers only. It was assumed that the more years the subjects had taught in the classroom, the less likely they were to have had any recent significant classroom supervision. It was also felt that as a result of this lack of super-

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vision their graduate work should be designed to help them reexamine their thinking about instruction. This rationale eliminated those volunteers with only two or three years of experience.

The second criterion regarding the nature of the candidate's teaching assignments was established in order to direct the project toward the teacher in the self-contained classroom. Consequently, teachers involved in team teaching projects and departmental programs or track systems were eliminated. Finally, because the college instructor was to conduct supervision in addition to his regular responsibilities, the proximity of the school in which the teacher taught was also considered. If the supervisors were to make frequent visits to the classroom, then the schools had to be fairly accessible to the University.

Upon these bases, a sixth-grade teacher and a fourth-grade teacher were tentatively selected from the seven volunteers. Each of the women selected had over ten years of experience, was teaching in a self-contained classroom, and was working in a school located within a five-minute drive of the University.

A necessary adjunct to the final selection of the teachers was to request permission from the public schools for an outside agent to supervise teachers on a continuous basis. A letter was sent to the superintendent of schools explaining the nature of the project and requesting permission to engage in classroom supervision. The reply granting permission to the request came by way of action taken by the board of education at one of its regular meetings. Incidentally, it was hoped that one additional outcome of the project would be the opening of another area in which local school systems and nearby universities could work together toward the improvement of instruction.

A review of each teacher's graduate studies indicated that both teachers had focused in their course work upon the foundations of education, studies in the liberal arts and sciences, and work in the area of elementary education. Each teacher's program of study appeared to be typical of graduate work undertaken at this institution. This work, however, needed to be supplemented with a review of the literature concerning conceptions of elementary method and findings of research on instruction. These teachers needed to be brought up to date about instructional innovations that were being reported in yearbooks, reports, and monographs. They also needed to examine, analyze, and evaluate ideas that were being made operational in the field. Finally, they needed to develop techniques for engineering those ideas which they believed had merit into their own classroom instruction. A bibliography prepared for these people served to sample some of the ideas being generated about elementary method in the various fields of instruction. This bibliography, however, was to be considered only as a point of departure for further study. The University granted these people access to the university library even though they were not officially enrolled in course work. (It should be noted that these teachers received no credit for this course work. They had not enrolled for this study and, as a result, would not, without special permission, have been entitled to use the facilities of the University.)

With the preliminaries completed, the teachers were ready to begin identifying the dimensions of the year's work which was to include:

1) classroom supervision, 2) individual conferences, and 3) seminar meetings.

The arrangements for the observations were routine. Each classroom observation was arranged in advance by both the teacher and the university supervisor. It was believed that if there was to be a strong professional relationship between teacher and supervisor, surprise visits should not take place. The observations, occurring twice a month, usually lasted about an hour. Frequently, a tape recording of the lesson was made to be used later during the conference to facilitate pinpointing specific aspects of the lesson. The tape was also available to the teacher for self-evaluation.

Since these were experienced teachers, the supervisors were able to ignore many of the points concerning classroom management that one might ordinarily discuss with inexperienced student teachers. Instead, both supervisor and teacher were able to direct their discussion toward: 1) an analysis of teacher planning activities, 2) a theoretical rationale for methods used in instruction, and 3) an evaluation of the lesson.

The teachers were well qualified to go beyond the usual types of discussions concerning gathering materials for instruction and developing teaching units. Therefore, the planning activities were viewed first in terms of examining the extent of intellectual preparation in which each teacher engaged to prepare herself for the lesson, and second in terms of the identification of the concepts to be taught and generalizations to be discovered. The purpose of the discussion on intellectual preparation was to encourage the teacher to become more sensitive and current about the subject matter she taught. Frequently, during the discussion, the teacher was directed to adult reading, both fiction and nonfiction, that related to the subject matter of the unit. For example, a teacher dealing with pollution might have been directed to Rachel Carson's *The Silent Spring*; or if studying the Near East and ancient history to James Michener's *The Source;* or to Styron's *The Confessions of Nat Turner* for a view of the Civil War.

Another dimension of the intellectual activity of planning was the understanding of the concepts and generalizations presented in the subject matter being taught. The teacher was challenged to identify what she perceived to be the key concepts of the lesson. She was also expected to indicate what generalizations she thought would emerge from an understanding of the concepts identified in the subject matter. These inquiries attempted to broaden the teacher's planning activities.

As the conference continued, it appeared important that the teacher explain the theoretical rationale for her behavior. She was led frequently into a series of questions such as: Upon what basis did you decide to present the lesson in this particular way? How did you provide for individual differences? What is unique about your class that must be taken into account when teaching? This type of questioning was designed to make the teacher think reflectively about the lesson and to encourage her to plan methods of instruction on a rational basis rather than on an intuitive one. During much of the conference, however, the supervisor would find himself supporting the kinds of things the teachers were doing, rather than being critical of them. Experienced teachers such as these are often doing commendable jobs of instruction without ever really knowing it. As they lack any real supervision in the classroom, they seldom have ways of knowing if what they are doing is pedagogically sound. They need support from someone who has observed them.

The final aspect of the discussion was relegated to analyzing the teacher's explanation of how she proposed to evaluate the lesson. In this area there was a concerted effort to find a number of means for evaluating a lesson—ways that were not at the two extremes frequently perceived by teachers as methods of evaluating a lesson (at one extreme, teachers frequently give students a test; at the other extreme, they give such vague descriptions of the lessons as "the students seemed interested" or "they settled down to work quickly"). Too often these methods are used to measure the success of a lesson.

To assist the teacher in achieving more tangible means of evaluation, the supervisor directed the teacher to examine such works as Bloom's *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* and Robert F. Mager's *Preparing Instructional Objectives.*

At the close of each conference, the supervisor suggested to the teacher other ways of approaching the lesson. Other dimensions of teaching methods were also considered. These dimensions were then to be accounted for in the lesson that was to be observed next. The teacher was led to more and more difficult types of teaching assignments. These assignments were considered more difficult in the sense that more and more of the theoretical constructs identified in her formal course work were to be considered in the lessons. The specific means of executing the assignment were left to the teacher.

In addition to supervision, a series of seminars were held during the year which focused upon current conceptions about the various dimensions of instruction. The topics for discussion at these sessions ranged from an emphasis upon exploring the structure of knowledge in the organized disciplines to discussions on creativity, critical thinking, and measurement. Each session was designed to clarify further the student's thinking about the factors she should consider in the process of facilitating learning. Whenever possible, additional staff members from the University attended these sessions. These people were resource people who would lend their expert knowledge to the topic under discussion. Not only were these sessions valuable to the students, but they also gave the supervisor an opportunity to evaluate their grasp of the subject for discussion.

Although this is not an empirical research study, it is reasonable to infer that the teachers in this project were more receptive to intensive supervision from outside rather than from within the district. Why? Perhaps because these people could legitimately engage in this type of activity without losing face among their peers.[1]

There was little doubt about the interest generated among other teachers about the project. Teachers in the same building with those involved in the project wanted to know from these people what they thought of this type of supervision. They were particularly curious about the methods and curriculum materials being used. One question most frequently asked was: Were these teachers using new gadgets, films, or texts? (Of course they weren't; they were working with what was available within the building.) Others in the district and in other districts asked if they might be supervised if the project were to continue.

Through observation and informal conferences it could not be determined whether there was any relationship between the graduate course work completed by these people and their classroom practices.[2] An examination of each student's graduate transcripts and catalogue description of his courses offered no additional insights. Were their courses directly relevant to the improvement of instruction? One could not tell!

The proposition this project examined was that if experienced teachers are going to apply current knowledge from pedagogy and the content fields, then they need field help in engineering it to their own situations. Graduate schools, in redesigning masters programs, might explore this notion as one of many means for making their programs relevant to the times. Academic exercises such as master's theses, term papers, and comprehensive exams have limited value to people in the field trying to improve the quality of their instruction.

Beyond master's programs, this project could stimulate school districts to develop other means for engaging teachers in the process of self-renewal. Instead of piling up more graduate credit hours, and in addition to workshops and conferences, could not teachers engage periodically in a semester or a year of intensive supervision? As has been said too frequently, supervision is invariably directed toward those in the minority—the inexperienced or ineffectual—leaving the others adrift. Maybe one solution is periodic intensive supervision directed by a supportive agency.

FOOTNOTES

1. Where patterns of intensive supervision have been established and are directed toward the inexperienced and ineffectual, it is difficult to alter this practice to include others without their feeling some loss of status among their peers.

2. It is accepted that this project focused upon instruction, which is only one aspect of work done by teachers in the field; however, it is generally agreed that this is the most important aspect of their work.

SUPERVISION AND THE IDEAL TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIP

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EVERY superintendent, principal, and department chairman who supervises teachers must decide on the perspective from which he will view teaching. He must focus his attention if he wishes to make sense out of the things he sees and hears. Each perspective emphasizes certain things rather than others. But choose he must for he cannot see everything at once. For example: 1) Will he look for the pattern of leadership influence being established in the class? 2) Will he look for the type and number of factual, evaluative, and definitional statements? 3) Will he look for examples of "indoctrinating" and contrast them with examples of "instructing"? 4) Will he look for the warmth and closeness the teacher and pupils establish among themselves?

It is quite obvious that in any given session of supervision no supervisor can utilize the four perspectives shown in the questions just mentioned. A supervisor must decide upon a frame of reference, and this decision entails many considerations as everyone well knows. Perhaps the most important one is whether the data gathered from a particular perspective will be helpful to the supervisor in working with a particular teacher.

Let us deal here with the psychological perspective, suggested in the fourth question above, which focuses on the interpersonal relationship between teacher and student. A supervisor utilizing this perspective will gain information about the quality and intensity of the relationship a teacher has with his pupils. The need for such data is obvious: it is a basic principle of pedagogy that a positive relationship is essential in teaching. Indeed, one psychologist, William Stavsky, claims that teaching is "basically an interpersonal relationship which, with its proper techniques and devices, helps reduce or control anxiety and so promotes learning." [1] But the question still remains, "What are the characteristics of a good interpersonal relationship, one that facilitates learning?" Also important is the parallel question, "What characterizes a poor teacher-student relationship?" Let us answer each question in turn via the writings and research of some contemporary psychologists and educational researchers.

Carl Rogers, the noted psychotherapist, has looked at the conditions which lead to significant learning in therapy.[2] Then he has asked what they would mean if applied to teaching. He describes significant learning, incidentally, as learning that makes a difference in a person's life.

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Thus, for Rogers, significant learning is more than simply accumulated knowledge. It is the learning of attitudes and skills, and the development of a healthy personality. According to Rogers, the following conditions are necessary to promote significant learning.

- The teacher and student must work on solving problems that have meaning and interest to them, especially to the student.
- The teacher must accept the student as he is and regard him positively.
- The teacher must be able to empathize with the student; he must be able to feel as the student feels.
- The teacher must be a genuine person without facade or pretense. He must act as he really is and be aware of his actions.

For Rogers, these constitute the characteristics of a good teacher-student relationship; they promote learning. Indeed, one of the leaders of the current reform in biology, Joseph J. Schwab, writes in a similar vein. He not only acknowledges the need for a good teacher-student relationship but he shows its centrality to effective teaching. In an article on the teaching of BSCS biology, Schwab writes, '. . . the teacher shows that the student has evoked his interest and he is responding by recognition of this student as an individual person. We should notice that reciprocity of evocation and response requires recognition of and liking for students as *individuals*; it also requires recognition of liking for individual qualities of persons." [3] Schwab goes on to clarify this "face-to-face interpersonal relationship." The following items based on Schwab may be added to Rogers' list even though they overlap somewhat:

- The teacher recognizes each student as an individual person with individual qualities.
- The teacher establishes classroom conditions so that reciprocal evocation and response can flourish.
- The teacher maintains a face-to-face relationship with each pupil.
- The teacher is competent—a master of his subject field and aware of its relatedness with other fields—and enthusiastic about learning. He serves as a model of the educated person and encourages the student to become one.

To support and expand the above items, let us now turn to some empirical data on this topic of the ideal teacher-student relationship. At Rutgers University, we have been using an adaptation of an instrument originally designed to study the ideal therapist-patient relationship.[4,5] So far we have studied the ideas on this topic with four groups of people: teachers, graduate students in education with and without teaching experience, undergraduate prospective teachers, and undergraduates not intending to become teachers.[6,7] We have asked these groups to identify statements which to them characterize the most ideal and the least ideal teacher-student relationship. The results are both interesting and significant. There is similarity in the descriptions offered by each of our four groups. The descriptions are not only similar to each other but they are also similar to a description obtained by a group of professors in another study.[8] This means that both teachers and non-teachers have similar ideas about what type of relationship ought to exist in the classroom. The description of this ideal teacher-student relationship that we have obtained via our instrument is summarized below by using some of the most frequently selected statements. Even a quick glance will readily reveal the similarity of these empirically obtained items to those of Rogers and Schwab. Though they again overlap somewhat, these items are now added to the list already begun:

- The teacher sees the student as a co-worker on a common problem.
- The teacher greatly encourages and reassures the student.
- The teacher's explanations fit in correctly with the student's ability and knowledge.
- The teacher gives and takes in the classroom.
- The teacher is able to permit the student's expression of ideas much of the time.

In light of the previous discussion, it is now no longer difficult to list the characteristics of a poor or least ideal teacher-student relationship. Obviously, a teacher who establishes a relationship with such characteristics will not lead the student to significant learning as defined above by Rogers. The following items are derived from Rogers, Schwab, and our research at Rutgers:

- The teacher ignores ideas coming from the student.
- The teacher relates to the class as an amorphous mass.
- The teacher feels disgusted by the student.
- The teacher rejects the student.
- The teacher is hostile toward the student.
- The teacher is overeager to be liked.
- The teacher talks down to the student.
- The teacher and student work on meaningless, unreal tasks.
- The teacher cannot explain things so that a student understands.
- The teacher frequently ridicules the student's ideas.
- The teacher cannot feel as the student does.
- The teacher shows no comprehension of the ideas the student is trying to communicate.
- The teacher's own ideas completely interfere with his understanding of the student's ideas.

It should be clear by now that a most meaningful task for the supervisor and teacher to work on together is improving the classroom teacher-student relationship. It is clear that teachers agree on what kind of relationship they would like to establish. Furthermore, preliminary data from research underway at Rutgers with high school students show that students agree with teachers about the nature of the relationship that ought to exist. The problem is that because teachers are so intimately involved in the process of teaching they often cannot easily perceive the manifestations of a good or poor relationship as they occur. Moreover, once some teachers have created a poor teacher-pupil relationship, they lack the ability to establish on their own the conditions that foster a good one. The supervisor is in an excellent position to help the teacher both in his gaining data about the existing relationship and in improving it.

What should the supervisor note in his observation of the teacher? First and foremost, he should become sensitive to the verbal discourse of the classroom; after all, it is primarily through talking that the teacher-student relationship is established. The supervisor should look for discourse which demonstrates that the teacher respects each student as a unique person. Granted that a certain amount of similar treatment is inevitable since there are many identical things students must do in a classroom due to group demands. Yet, there is still much latitude for respecting and treating the pupil as a person who has his own ideas about how things should be said and done.

It is virtually impossible to give examples of "wrong" or "right" statements for establishing a good teacher-pupil relationship. This is due to the fact that so much depends on the context of the situation and the tone of the statement. It is possible, however, to provide some guiding questions for assessing the effects of what the teacher says either as initiator or reactor: Does the teacher convey and encourage respect and trust? Is he willing to let students try out their ideas even if he thinks they will fail in their attempts? Does he introduce parallels and even allow for tangents so as to make class discussions and activities meaningful? Does the teacher provide viable alternatives when scheduling homework and classroom assignments? Does he allow for freedom of choice not only in activities but more importantly in values? Does the teacher bully or shame the pupils into doing as he wants and into believing as he does? Does he show that he feels as the student feels? Does the teacher exercise his societally given authority without necessarily being authoritarian?

Second, the supervisor should look for patterns in the flow of the classroom discourse. Our research[9,10] analyzing the language of the classroom reveals that most teachers establish a fairly stable pattern of teaching: a teacher question, a student response, a teacher question, a student response, and a teacher evaluative reaction to the student response about every other time. Obviously, there is a wide variety of unused possible patterns based on this combination of speaker type and pedagogical role. Macdonald[11] has identified six teaching games which are in essence also patterns of verbal communication: 1) information-giving game; 2) mastery game; 3) problem solving game; 4) discovery or inquiry game; 5) dialogue game; and 6) clarification game

It is important for the supervisor to look for patterns in classroom discourse. First, a good teacher-student relationship is more effectively built and is reflected in a variety of patterns in classroom discourse. A single, monotonous pattern of behavior leads to feelings of boredom and drudgery. It does not encourage the teacher to encounter the pupil as a human being with many facets. Instead, it permits the teacher and pupil to see but one dimension of each other and this does not lead to a good relationship. Second, certain patterns involve more and freer interchange between the teacher and the pupils. These are more conducive to a good relationship.

Third, the supervisor should look for nonverbal communication that manifests respect for each person in the class As Schwab[12] points out, the teacher, by focusing his eye on a particular pupil, can show that he is responding to the pupil's evocations and that he is thereby recognizing the pupil as a unique person. The teacher in effect says, "You are not simply a part of an amorphous mass. You evoked me and I responded." This can be done with eye movements but no doubt it is best done with laughter. The case for laughter in teaching is not simply that it makes people happy for happiness is not the prime goal of teaching. Laughter is important in teaching because people who laugh together are communicating their feelings to each other. People who laugh together "step out of the shadows of self-reference cast by age, sex, and position. This creation of a shared experience can act as a catalyst which releases a class to unite in their common enterprise."[13] This nonverbal communication of responsiveness and common enterprise is essential to a good teacher-student relationship.

The supervisor's job must not end with observing. He must now use his observations as a base for helping the teacher maintain and improve good relationships with the pupils. The first step, then, is clearly to report his findings to the teacher. Some of the data may come as a surprise to the teacher who cannot objectively perceive his own actions. Once the teacher is aware of his words and actions as perceived by someone else, however, he may initiate steps on his own to bring about change. The mere presentation of data previously unavailable may be sufficient to encourage improvement. Many teachers are capable of such self-directed improvement.

In addition, the supervisor can actively help to modify the teacher's behavior. The emphasis should be on behavior change rather than on attitude or personality change. It is not feasible or desirable for the supervisor to attempt to reconstruct the teacher's personality. This is not his domain. It is possible, however, to show the teacher how to change his teaching behavior and thus let new relationships and ideas follow from changed behavior.

For example, the supervisor can demonstrate one or several lessons in which he provides opportunities for the expression of individual pupil preferences, in which he trusts the students' choices, and in which he verbally commends the students for their efforts. He can demonstrate one or several lessons in which he changes the typical verbal pattern of the classroom mentioned earlier. He may so structure the situation that the pattern becomes basically a pupil question, a teacher response, a pupil question, a teacher response. . . . This is the basic pattern Suchman[14] has established in his inquiry training programs. This, in effect, would change teaching to a discovery or inquiry game, according to Macdonald. Thus the supervisor can demonstrate patterns (games) which the particular teacher can perform and which can become the base for improving the relationships in the classroom.

In this way, the supervisor translates into behavior what it is he is asking the teacher to do in order to establish the conditions that are fundamental to a good teacher-student relationship. The supervisor himself demonstrates behavior which manifests respect and trust, which encourages expression of pupil ideas, and which permits the pupils' exploration of their ideas. In other words, he demonstrates the factors which constitute a good teacher-pupil relationship. By example, he asks the teacher to do the possible.

This use of supervisor demonstrations and follow-up conferences is in accord with the preferences expressed by teachers regarding desirable supervisory practices.[15] More important, it offers the supervisor the opportunity to stress the positive rather than the negative. The point is that by showing how to create the conditions that are desired, the supervisor is in a position to refer to positive examples rather than to carp at negative behavior. This leads to changed behavior and improved teacher-pupil relationships. Surely, supervision by example is more effective than supervision by exhortation.

One last thing is implicit for the supervisor in all of this. It is quite easy to substitute "supervisor" for "teacher" and "supervisee" for "student" in all of the 26 statements in the lists previously mentioned. That is, a supervisor must respect his teachers, work on meaningful tasks, accept his teachers positively, encourage his teachers, permit give-and-take, and so forth. The supervisor must not be hostile, must not reject the teachers, must not talk down to the teachers, must not work on unreal tasks, and so forth. In short, the characteristics of a good teacher-student relationship apply equally to a good supervisor-supervisee relationship. Supervisors co-working with teachers can help to change negative conditions in the classroom if they keep this in mind. Indeed, the need for improving the relationships in the classroom is admitted by all. This improvement is as much the task of the supervisor as it is the task of the teacher.

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A MODEL OF FOCUSED SUPERVISION

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SUPERVISION is a word surrounded by an aura of magic, especially for the newcomer into the profession of teaching. The beginning principal, for example, might feel some elation at the thought of becoming the supervising principal. However, when the supervisor begins to work with teachers, the elation of being a supervisor is quickly replaced by problems. Different individuals have different views of the supervisor, whether the supervisor is operating in only one of his many other roles (for example, a principal will alternately act as a supervisor, a manager, a clerk, and so forth) or whether the supervisor is operating as a full-time specialist. Each individual will receive or reject the supervisor, or the supervising principal, upon the basis of the role expectancy that he maintains for him.

Among any group of experienced teachers, you will probably find stereotyped views of a supervisor that range from the "iron-fisted arm of the administration" to the innocuous sort of person who tries to please everyone. In order to overcome, at least partially, the negative effects of such stereotyped views of the supervisor, a non-traditional theory of supervision should be taken.

The particular division of the functions of a principal depends upon which basis one uses for division. In general, however, the main functions of a principal will fall under one or more of the following categories: planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting. Regardless of the division, or basis of division, of the functions of a principal, his primary role is that of instructional leader. The theory of supervision to be presented in this article should enable the principal to assert himself with greater success in the areas of evaluation and staff relations. Yet, he will need only to use the skills and knowledge that he normally employs to complete his typical, everyday tasks.

The demands made upon the principal are such that he cannot expect to make 50-minute visits in the classroom of each teacher for any significant number of visits. In fact, such an effort would be of questionable value even if it were feasible. Under such a plan, the principal would most likely make more observations of areas that should be called to the teacher's attention than both the teacher and the principal would have either the time or volition to deal with, to say nothing of having any time left for improving teaching behavior.

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Since evaluation and supervision of some sort will take place whether the principal has an acceptable model or not, the principal must plan his supervision to such an extent that it will be both effective and efficient. Perhaps it would be appropriate at this point to analyze some techniques that are too often used as alternatives to in-the-classroom supervision. Such a list might include the following:

Collector of gossip. The principal cannot depend upon what he hears from encounters with students, parents, and the grapevine in general. By their very nature, these sources are not representative. The student, for example, who discusses the behavior of a teacher with the principal is, by his very act, atypical. The parent who discusses a teacher with the principal usually has an axe to grind.

The speaker sneaker. The principal who "listens in" with the aid of the public address system has selected a very unreliable means of evaluating teachers, not to mention the strain he places on principal-teacher relations. You simply cannot "taste" the true atmosphere of a class by such a remote means as the public address system. Such an act is analogous to taking a sentence out of context.

The hallway listener. A principal might listen at the door of the classroom. The teacher so evaluated through this "peeping Tom" approach is denied his professional right to direct confrontation. Then, too, it is difficult enough to truly perceive what is happening in a classroom when one is seated within the classroom; to attempt to inform one's self as to the happenings within a classroom by standing at the door is to prove that one is naive.

The mystic. The most commonly used method of evaluating teacher effectiveness by the principal is probably the intuitive method. By this method, the mystic, in the guise of a principal, evaluates teachers upon the basis of "divined" impressions that he has received from some unknown source of power.

The conglomerate. The *conglomerate* method uses some expedient combination of the approaches listed above. The principal who employs this method is generally extremely difficult to distinguish from the mystic. One characteristic of this approach is the grossly inequitable weighting of factors in a most unreliable and invalid approach to evaluation of teachers.

The student opinion seeker. Generally, the *student opinion seeker* approach is typically practiced as a specialized effort within the approach used by the *collector of gossip.* Student opinion polls may be used by principals who wish to admit publicly that they are inadequate to the task of evaluating teachers, although they generally place the blame for lack of ability upon "lack of time." While an accurate assessment of student attitude can be of some value in making certain types of decisions, student opinion polls are subject to all the limitations researchers commonly attribute to any opinion poll. Such impressive statements as "68 per cent of all females in the tenth grade do not 'like' the way the mathematics teacher walks down the hall after his 9:30 class" may mislead the principal with its aura of authority. The fact that experienced teachers are not as yet assured as to exactly what good teaching is precludes using "experienced" students to evaluate teachers upon the incredulous assumption that students, because they are students, can recognize good teaching. Teaching is far too difficult an act to be evaluated by an "experienced" student. No matter what an administrator might assert, he will generally be swayed, to a significant extent, by student opinion polls. After all, opinion polls are straws the principal can grasp.

The utilizer of teacher evaluation of teachers. A principal might have a teacher (or a team of teachers) evaluate the performance of other teachers. While this approach has great merit, it is permeated with problems in human relations. Like the student opinion polls, popularity may become a dominant factor.

The manipulator of panacea gadgets. Teachers have consistently withstood the onslaught of gadgets. The first major gadget thought by some to be a suitable replacement for the classroom teacher was the sound motion picture concept. Since that time, teachers have been threatened by teaching machines, programed textbooks, and educational television. The computer is currently the "replacer." It is, of course, almost impossible to find anyone who has ever thought that the motion picture projector and sound films can replace the teacher. It is not nearly so difficult, however, to find individuals who believe that the computer will eventually replace the classroom teacher. Some other "panacea gadgets" and concepts are as follows:

- *Video tape recorders.* These instruments have been developed to the point at which they are no longer out of the financial reach of many school districts. Currently, you can purchase a fairly serviceable unit for about $1,200 to $1,300. Some of the advantages of the video tape recorder are that presentations can be taped and stored for future use, whatever is recorded can be erased and the tape used again and again, and almost anything that can be viewed in the classroom can be taped on the video tape recorder.
- *Micro-teaching.* The teaching act is broken down into its component parts. A teacher will teach one segment of a total teaching act (for example, assignment of work, administering tests, and so forth) for about five to fifteen minutes to from one to five students. The teacher's performance is viewed via videotape and critiqued. The teacher performs a second time with the same number but with different students for the same length of time in an attempt to improve.
- *Time lapse photography.* By combining a 35mm camera with a timer that is enclosed in a sound-proof box, pictures of teachers and/or students can be had at "off-guard" moments. These pictures can be studied with a view toward analysis of apparent student attention or inattention.

The "panacea gadgets" should not be neglected since they are helpful aids in the carrying out of instructional improvements. However, it is both the principal with a professional manner and an atmosphere of mutual progress that can really alter the practices seen in the classroom.

By accepting a non-traditional theory of supervision, the principal can provide educational leadership in his school with many of the same processes and skills which he utilizes daily in his occupation. There is no reason to insist that the principal become involved with professional decisions about curriculum for which he may not be knowledgeable. There is room within the list of instructional needs for the principal to take an active part in the process of improving teaching behaviors. The theoretical model that can offer the principal a vital and yet less impossible role in supervision is a model of focused supervision. Focused supervision demands brief and frequent observations of classroom behavior as well as an ensuing analysis of the observations, a type of analysis that is often demanded in administrative work.

Focused supervision demands that the principal become a non-directive conversant with whom the teacher can try out his perceptions without fear of reprisal. The manner is flexible and experimental. The program of improvement may include several ten- to fifteen-minute observations by the principal. A more detailed explanation follows:

First Visit to the Classroom

- *Observation.* The principal will seek to diagnose the instructional style of the teacher.
- *Follow-up conference.* The principal and the observed teacher will discuss, in a non-directive manner, those instructional problems that the teacher feels to be most limiting. The teacher and the principal will define a problem area that will become the focus for change.

Second Visit to the Classroom

- *Observation.* The principal will seek to define, refine, and simplify the behavior problem that the teacher and the principal identified for focus during the first visit and discussion.
- *Follow-up conference.* Together the teacher and the principal will explore alternatives, and the teacher will formulate a strategy for behavior change.

Third Visit to the Classroom

- *Observation.* The principal will be looking for improvement in the teacher behavior that had mutually been identified for focus by the teacher and the principal.
- *Follow-up conference.* The principal will serve as an agent for feedback.

The principal who accepts this theory of supervision is committed to a program of slow, gradual improvement where only one teacher skill or one professional conception will be altered within a supervisory sequence. Time required for all three visits would likely be no greater than the time spent in one 50-minute to 75-minute observation. Finally, the principal who uses the theory of focused supervision can feel optimistic about the possibility that the improved behavior will become a "causer" of additional improved behavior.

FACTS ABOUT TEACHING BEHAVIORS— OR MERELY ASSUMPTIONS?

R. C. BRADLEY

PRINCIPALS and supervisors can be most effective in helping teachers improve their instructional techniques by sharing with them significant observations coming from within the actual teaching act. It can, in fact, be a valuable learning process for both. Although the questions that appear in this article do not include all of the types of questions that should be discussed with teachers, they do represent at least *some* of the queries that the principal or supervisor should make in his efforts to help the teacher improve the quality of instruction. For example, he might ask the teacher the following questions as part of a follow-up discussion after he has completed a lesson observation within the actual classroom setting:

1. *Who was the most attentive child during your class instruction?* Do not be surprised if the teacher selects the quiet child who appeared to be listening but was actually doing something else.

2. *Did you complete the learning cycle?* In order for a child to truly learn, most educators agree that he must be exposed to subject matter through some method and then evaluated as to his retention of the facts or understandings of the processes that have been taught. In order to complete this learning cycle, the child must be given additional, related subject matter. Otherwise, we cannot determine whether he is able to readjust his thinking to make new or different applications as a result of having acquired this new knowledge. In other words, articulation of subject matter may provide for continuous learning. However, learning may not be enhanced unless the teacher provides opportunities for the child to use, in new situations, the things that have been taught.

3. *Was the lesson mainly fact finding or inference making?* Unless the teacher recognizes that facts are to be used for detecting contrasts, seeing relationships, predicting consequences, and making inferences, then instruction and methods will probably be stifling.

4. *How did you arrive at the fact that this was the best method of teaching this lesson?* Most teachers have a favorite method of teaching, while some have only *a* method. Until the principal helps the teacher find the methods right for *his* teaching, the full measure of the teacher's success may never be realized. Quality teaching more often comes about when the teacher is able to look at several methods of teaching that have

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worked quite well previously for him and can select the better method for use with a given individual or small-group situation.

5. *Whom did you allow to respond most often during the lesson?* Some teachers are not aware that the same three or four pupils are carrying and have been carrying the discussion load in all subject matter areas.

6. *Did you provide the types of questions that exercise the higher-level thought processes?* Questions are the teacher's major teaching tool since they can be "personalized" to determine what thinking skills the child will employ in a given lesson. They even delimit the amount of curriculum that one is expected to know about during the lesson. Nearly 81 per cent of the questions used in classrooms are of the factual one-answer type. Probably teachers devote less time to preparing questions for use during the initial teaching act than they do to any other teaching responsibility. Teachers can be taught to develop those questions which stimulate the child to think and to see relationships between ideas, and to go beyond the mere recall of facts.

7. *Could what you were teaching be picked up conventionally or through ordinary experiences?* Teachers must recognize that *some* things must be taught, while other information will be obtained generally in out-of-class situations and experiences. The wise principal or supervisor will help the teacher to identify significant "episodes" of learning which would probably never be encountered or learned by the child unless taught in the classroom. If the subject under consideration is generally well known to the group, then there is little need to plow the same ground twice.

The principal or supervisor might also make certain types of observations which he can use for discussion purposes with the teacher. Together they can then decide on those teaching behaviors that might be altered. The findings obtained through observing the lesson in progress can be discussed in a personal and private conference with the teacher. Among the questions teacher and supervisor should deal with are the following:

- Did the teacher show evidences of alternative plans? Some teachers feel that one plan has to be used once it is under way, no matter what the case.
- Were there attempts to motivate children in the middle or near the end of the lesson? Some teachers seek to motivate only at the beginning of instruction.
- Was there any attempt to reinforce that which was being taught? Drill is not always a good reinforcement technique; nor must one always use tests.
- Did the teacher waste teaching time by repeating the answer each child gave to a question? This technique can reduce the value of the response for the other children in the class.
- Were the children comprehending the vocabulary of the teacher? Occasionally, a teacher will unintentionally not only talk down to his pupils but also above and between them.
- Was there too much shaping of the lesson? A conventional lesson limits student involvement in planning and allows too few deviations.

- Was there any attempt to summarize the lesson? A recapitulation is far from being a summary. It must tie ideas together, provide insight, illustrate cause and effect, and provoke further thought.
- In moves to learn, did the pupils or the teacher make the most moves? Teachers often show more enthusiasm during a lesson than do the pupils. This enthusiasm must be shared.
- Were any attempts made to evaluate what was learned within the class period? Evaluation can come through teacher observation (seeing demonstrations and other overt actions), student verbalization, or written experiences.
- Did the teacher show evidences of knowing her goals clearly with respect to the lesson? Seldom do we get the best from the lesson if only the teacher or pupils know the goals; never do we obtain much if neither seems to know. Both must be clearly aware of the objectives.

It behooves all of us as administrators to look carefully at what is going on as the "teaching act" in our elementary classrooms. Some teachers do not truly know their teaching power until the principal or supervisor shares with them significant observations coming from within the actual teaching act.

Quality teaching does not come by luck, unless we accept the definition that luck is the residue of design. Many teachers will have sound, significant answers to the questions posed in this article. If this be the case, even then principals should take even more heed to the words of John Stuart Mill, in his essay *On Genius* (1932), when he wrote "As much genius is often displayed in explaining the design and bringing out the hidden significance of a work of art as in creating it." Certainly a principal's findings may be of greater import even unto himself since he can then point out a more definite direction to teachers seeking to improve their instruction.

In-Service Education

CONTINUING EDUCATION: THE CHALLENGE TO PRINCIPALS

JOHN M. BAHNER

THIS article argues that for many reasons, elementary school principals spend an insufficient amount of time and effort on one of their most crucial responsibilities—continuous professional education. As a result, most elementary school principals are not as effective as they could be and as they should be.

Elementary school principals throughout the country should be providing leadership to the field of educational administration to the same degree that elementary school teachers have provided teaching techniques and beliefs which are exemplary for the profession. Although there are many exceptions (both positive and negative) to the following generalization, I believe that most of the desirable innovations which have originated in the elementary school have come about in spite of elementary school principals—not because of them. As this condition changes, elementary school principals will make a decided impact on the theory and practice of school administration.

High Priority Problems

The following section identifies several strategic problems which require the principal's leadership. Each problem area is concerned with the principal's responsibility to teachers—and this in itself is indicative of the source of most of the ineffectiveness among elementary school principals.

1. At least one teacher, and probably most of the staff, in every elementary school has not had sufficient training to teach well all of the things for which he is responsible. Teacher training institutions have strengths and weaknesses which are usually reflected in their products. And even if the preparing institution has a well-rounded program, students learn differentially and bring to their teaching varying interests and aptitudes.

A visit to the classroom, for example, may reveal that Miss Newcomb does a remarkably good job with phonics but seems to be at a loss when it comes to comprehension skills. Even though Miss Newcomb apparently knows that she must develop comprehension skills, she goes about it in such a mechanical manner that she destroys the vitality of

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her teaching and thereby minimizes the chances that the children will see meaning in what they are reading. In the next room, Mrs. Oldfather may be doing a terrific job with both phonics and comprehension skills but may be failing rather miserably in providing the proper atmosphere for developing creative writing abilities in her pupils. If either new or experienced teachers are not fully prepared, the principal has a responsibility to see that they obtain the kind of additional training they need.

2. With the rapid increase and reinterpretation of knowledge, no elementary school in the country can have a staff of teachers who have current knowledge in every field they teach. For example, men and women who have been considered excellent teachers of arithmetic for the past fifteen years may have very limited ability to develop the understanding of mathematical principles or the theory of our number system which modern mathematicians advocate in the elementary school curriculum. Hopefully, no principal is content to rest on the laurels of past successes. Instead, he will provide for and inspire continuous education.

3. New instructional techniques are appearing constantly. Examples can be found in the teaching of science, in the many uses of the overhead projector, and in the development of appropriate large group presentations for elementary school pupils. Emerging on the elementary school horizon are such promising techniques as programed instruction and data processing equipment. As a result, even if teachers could keep up to date in the various subject area fields, there would be the additional problem of staying apprised of appropriate recent technology in the field of teaching itself. The principal should be a key person in keeping abreast of the emerging technology and in finding ways of sharing this knowledge with the faculty.

4. Although the so-called self-contained classroom has been challenged for one reason or another during the past fifty or more years, there has been a real upsurge of innovations in elementary school organization within just the past five years. Regardless of the pattern or patterns of organization which eventually become common, no elementary school staff can afford to ignore the challenge which these new forms of organization offer to test the legitimacy of the status quo. While the terms "nongraded" and "team teaching" fail to denote specific organizational patterns, they do suggest alternatives regarding elementary school organization which must be evaluated. Under the leadership of the principal, each staff must consider the appropriateness of the principles of nongrading and team teaching and make deliberate decisions to adopt, adapt, or reject them as influences on the local school.

5. A fifth problem area centers around school-parent relationships. Little attention is given to this topic in the pre-service education of teachers and principals; yet much of their time on the job is concerned with problems between home and school. These problems take a variety of forms: a parent complaining about a teacher's handling of a child; a mother wanting to know why the school does not have an advanced placement program like the one in the town where her sister lives; a parent who says that the "S" on the report card doesn't mean anything and wants to know what the mark would be in terms of "A, B, C, D, F"; a parent who is dissatisfied because she feels she lacks information about the school.

Regardless of the form the problem takes, the underlying cause is most likely to be lack of interaction between parents and teachers. Certainly, our use of written communications in the school-parent relationship is worth serious study to see if we use them properly or if we should even use them at all. But it would be an administrative blunder to initiate new ways for parents and teachers to work together without first helping teachers develop an understanding of the problem and exploring techniques that might be used.

6. Finally, there is an area which in a way encompasses all the above —involving the faculty in change. Change never occurs without some dissatisfaction with existing conditions. Unless someone challenges teachers and principals to explain or defend what they are doing, the status quo will tend to go unevaluated. Even when there is an impetus for change on a faculty, lack of skill in working together to achieve change is usually an impediment to progress.

Thus, in a faculty discussion about basic educational issues, a large portion of the time may be consumed by various members of the group espousing their special interests. Teachers become so engrossed in trying to sell their own point of view that they fail to attempt to understand the other person's point of view. Not only that, but arguments seem to continue even when the participants have many areas of agreement. There is a tendency for the debators to emphasize their differences rather than to identify the points at which they agree and work from there.

Seldom do the members of a faculty sit down and analyze their own behavior during faculty meetings. As a result, there is little opportunity to improve their group dynamics. When good group processes are established, the faculty's energies can be used more productively to examine programs, the teaching act, patterns of organizing staff and pupils, and methods of reporting to parents. Without such examinations, the status quo remains unchallenged. It is the principal's job to make change a normal phenomenon within his school.

Possible Patterns of Action

Elementary schools have similar characteristics and problems; yet no specific plan of action will work in all cases. Successful solutions to the problems of continuing education must be based on the individual needs of the school. Thus, in the suggestions which follow, the reader is urged to look for the principles underlying each approach and to judge the most appropriate pattern of action for his own school in light of these principles.

Eventual outcomes. Administrators who take immediate action without considering long-range plans are like the fire fighter who is constantly putting out small brush fires while the forest burns. Because they are nearby and relatively easy to handle, the brush fires may get our immediate attention, but one can spend a lifetime putting out the brush fires without making a dent in the bigger problems that lie elsewhere. To avoid giving exclusive attention to the necessary but relatively trivial operations within the school, the elementary school principal should engage in some daydreaming, trying to create the best of all possible worlds. "Think big" should be his motto at this point. For example:

- It may be that the potential of television in education is much greater for the in-service training of teachers than it is for the instruction of pupils. Perhaps television is the medium through which teachers will obtain up-to-date knowledge and learn about new technological advances.

- School systems should admit that neither neophyte nor experienced teachers have all of the necessary training. Large districts may develop a "university system" of their own by attracting outstanding scholars and practitioners on a visiting professor basis. Smaller systems may undertake cooperative endeavors with other districts or become associated with a nearby university in conducting continuing education for their teachers.

Regardless of the mechanics, the future should bring a far greater emphasis on the use of clinical conditions in which teachers increase their competency. Twelve-month contracts should become commonplace, with teachers spending some of the year undergoing further training in one of these university-clinical setups. Education might well develop coveted "diplomates" similar to an American Institute of Architects Fellow for architects, the C.L.U. certificate for life insurance agents, the speciality in pediatrics for physicians, or the orthodontia speciality for dentists. The typical advanced academic degree may not be nearly as useful as a professional degree which goes beyond (not replaces) the acquisition of factual knowledge and important disciplinary relationships. To bring about an authentic and urgently needed wedding of theory and practice, the types of minds normally associated with our great universities need to be brought into intimate relationship with the expert practitioners normally associated with our outstanding school systems.

- Elementary schools of the future should have far more nonprofessionals and technicians working within their walls. Just as in large architectural and legal firms and in hospitals, the schools of the future should develop staffs of nonprofessionals and technicians who support the professionals in their central duties and relieve them of the relatively unskilled tasks which teachers in most elementary schools today are expected to perform.
- Some of the patterns of school organization now being developed demand mutual planning, teaching, and evaluating among the various faculty members. Such organizational patterns offer the opportunity to insure in-service training as well as constant evaluation and potential renovation of existing programs.

These ideas for meeting some of the problems of continuing education are not novel. They are being tried in some form in many schools today. As the reader begins to daydream himself, even more novel ideas are likely to be forthcoming. The underlying point here is that the elementary school principal should begin with long-range planning—with "imagineering," if you please—before beginning any immediate action. This long-range planning should provide guidelines which insure that his immediate actions lead to something greater than any one step can achieve.

Immediate action. The preceding section has already made explicit that the principal's first step in resolving the high priority problems which confront him is to become engaged in ideas. This engagement might take several forms, and perhaps all should be attempted.

At least some of the sessions of the local elementary school principals group should be devoted to brainstorming. The teachers on each school staff should be involved periodically in this sort of session as well.

Then, of course, it may well be that the principal himself needs to have some additional formal training. A planned program of professional reading might assist him in generating ideas and plans of action necessary to make the operation of his school more effective.

The elementary school principal should provide the leadership necessary for the faculty to engage in a year-long project of real worth. The topic for study should be of such importance to the school program that the project becomes an unshackling device, eventually causing the staff to challenge everything in the status quo. It is hoped that the faculty will retain that which is good and reject or modify that which is questionable. Defending and supporting one's ideas in front of one's colleagues is an in-service education device in itself. In the same way, the principal ought to conduct individual "in-service training" by asking teachers many "why" questions which demand that they think through what they are doing and engage in self-evaluation.

Good programs of in-service education take time, energy, and money. Principals should not hesitate to ask for all three. Teachers who express resentment toward typical faculty meetings (possibly with good reason) are often quite eager to spend time in a program which they feel has real value. Motivating teachers to expend additional energy is primarily dependent upon the principal's ability to analyze people and situations in such a way that he can create the environment and attitudes which are conducive to cooperative faculty action.

Obtaining the necessary money for programs of in-service education remains somewhat of an anomaly today. So few people have asked for funds to be spent in this manner that there are only scattered precedents for determining whether superintendents and school boards will accept or reject such requests. Unfortunately, there are many principals who never submit requests for funds because they think either the superintendent or the board will refuse. In withholding such requests, they never find out. Abdication of responsibility in this way is a real blot on one's professional reputation. Other principals who have submitted a request and been turned down on their first attempt have never tried again. This, too, is unfortunate since it often takes time before a new idea can be accepted. In order to establish good in-service education programs, it is essential that principals seek the necessary funds and defend the request with both logic and personal conviction.

There are many legitimate uses of tax money for promoting in-service activities: the employment of nonprofessional aides to free teachers for engaging in a significant school improvement project; the use of consultants to provide ideas and stimulate action; the acquisition of new materials to implement the ideas generated from an in-service project. Such uses of funds need to be accepted by school board members, and the chances are good they will be if the reasons are properly explained. Educators are often far too conservative and underestimate the desire of parents to support ideas that might improve the school program—a desire which is usually reflected in the willingness of many board members to buy new ideas when they are properly presented.

In the same manner that a teacher provides for the education of his pupils, the elementary school principal should assume leadership in providing for the continuing education of his teachers. If the reader accepts this point of view, then his pedagogical instincts will probably cause him to acknowledge the likelihood that not all teachers will move in the same direction and at the same rate of speed. They are individuals and will react differently. Hopefully, the principal can find means of giving full rein to those teachers who really want to move. Some teachers will want to stand pat. My advice is to allow them to do so. As they see their colleagues moving ahead, they will either fall in step or leave the school. Either of these two possibilities is desirable.

A Challenge—Or Perhaps a Threat

No apologies are made for the fact that this article has advocated extensive in-service education in the areas of curriculum, instruction, and organizational structure. These three areas have long been neglected in many elementary schools and have never received all the attention they deserved. At the same time, this article has intentionally neglected the bread-and-butter items such as pupil placement, discipline, securing necessary books and supplies, scheduling, and other more mundane but necessary matters.

Changes are long overdue in the areas of curriculum, instruction, and organizational structure. There is a job which *must* be done, and it will be done primarily through projects of in-service education. Because most principals are rather adequate in attending to the bread-and-butter items mentioned above, I think it is unlikely that they will be forced out of their positions even if they do not provide the leadership for in-service work. However, if principals do not fulfill their responsibilities in curriculum, instruction, and organizational structure, education is likely to create a new position above that of the elementary school principal (but not outside of the elementary school building) whose incumbent will have direct responsibility for seeing that progress is made in these areas. Today's elementary school principals will either rise to the occasion or find themselves literally second in command in their own buildings.

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION: NEEDS AND OPPORTUNITES

WILLIAM A. POPPEN AND
CHARLES B. HUELSMAN, JR.

THE need for developing professional teachers through in-service education is both obvious and pressing.[1,2] Bahner [3] has suggested the following needs related to the professional growth of teachers:

1. To keep teachers abreast of new materials and publications in education
2. To correct any inadequacies in pre-professional training
3. To help teachers increase their effectiveness in new instructional techniques
4. To help teachers redefine their role as changes in patterns of school organization occur
5. To improve teachers' techniques in handling school-parent relationships
6. To involve the faculty in change.

The existence of these needs reveals that in-service education must avoid becoming static. New procedures, methods, and techniques must be developed in order to promote the continuing professional growth of teachers. Opportunities for providing innovative in-service education programs are readily available. In this period of abundance of federal funds, those educators who desire to do so can bridge the gap between theory and practice through intensive in-service education. They may use programs funded by Cooperative Research grants, the National Defense Education Act, and the various titles of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. With such opportunities available, it is important that educators consider the types of in-service activities that can be implemented and the objectives that can be achieved.

Possible Objectives of In-Service Education

From the constellation of existing needs for in-service education, a variety of objectives can be identified:

1. To develop teacher knowledge about materials available for classroom and independent use by the pupil
2. To enhance teacher understanding of the conditions which allow learning—the social, psychological, and physiological factors which influ-

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ence the pupil in the learning process, and the effect the attitudes and values of the teacher have on the learning environment in the classroom

3. To assist teachers in developing skills in utilizing and implementing the classroom techniques which promote learning
4. To develop teacher understanding of the dynamics of the teacher-parent relationship and to develop skills in communicating with parents
5. To improve teacher skills in observing and evaluating pupil behavior
6. To augment teacher knowledge within a particular subject matter area.

Although some objectives of in-service programs are suggested in this article, it is not intended that a program of in-service activities should be superimposed upon teachers. Teachers must be involved in deciding upon the objectives of their own program. The purposes of the in-service activities must be directly related to the needs of the teachers and their school situation. A successful program seems assured if teachers understand their own problems and desire to do something about them.[4]

Time—the Teacher's Dilemma

Even if a program does evolve from teacher needs, it is still difficult to find the time for involving teachers in in-service education.

In finding the time for in-service opportunities for teachers, the following approaches may be used:

1. *Extended service.* Under this plan teachers could be placed on an extended service contract for a pre- or post-school workshop. The teacher's salary would be prorated or a flat stipend would be paid.
2. *Overload.* The overload arrangement allows teachers to be paid on an hourly basis for attending in-service meetings after school and on Saturdays. Teachers could be paid on a basis which is prorated per hour according to the teacher's yearly salary or teachers could be paid on a flat rate basis. Overload meetings could be bi-monthly, weekly, or as needed.
3. *Substitute teachers.* Under this plan substitutes could be hired on a half-day or a daily basis to release one, two, or more teachers.
4. *Independent study by pupils.* Teachers could arrange for children to have one or two hours of independent study in the library under the supervision of some other staff member. Teacher aides could supervise the independent study of pupils for short periods of time.
5. *Visitation days.* These days could sometimes be utilized for another type of in-service activity.
6. *Early school dismissal.* Under this plan students would be released from school early once each month. During this time teachers would remain on duty for in-service opportunities.

All of the preceding suggestions have advantages and disadvantages; therefore, the answer to the time dilemma may not be the use of any one approach but rather a combination of them. For example, night workshops on an overload basis may be held if it is important that all teachers attend. Substitute teachers can be employed to release teachers for small group meetings, such as day-long grade level meetings. By using two or more of the suggested approaches, and by using a variety of activities, a comprehensive in-service program can be implemented.

Incentives for Involvement

After time has been found for in-service education, it may still be necessary to take steps to develop willingness and enthusiasm for professional growth among teachers. One obvious incentive for teacher involvement in in-service education is to provide activities that are stimulating and worthwhile. However, if we accept the assumption that "Teachers, like most others, wish more material rewards for what they do . . ." [5] a second incentive, overtime pay for extra hours of in-service involvement, or released time for professional activities should be used.

Activities for In-Service Education

The development of meaningful and integrated in-service education activities is imperative to a successful program. In general, in-service activities can be categorized as either structured or unstructured.

The following sections suggest types of activities in each category. Some are relatively unique; others have been used successfully.

I. **Structured activities:** Structured activities are those which are scheduled for a definite portion of time. A brief description of possible structured or didactic activities is presented below.

Workshops. The workshop program can be designed to acquaint teachers and the staff with materials and resources available to them for classroom use and for independent use by the pupils. It can also provide teachers with the opportunity to plan for using materials in the classroom and to experiment with the operation of equipment.

Seminars. Seminars can serve as a vehicle to instruct teachers in a variety of areas. University consultants or other authorities can present lectures and lead discussions on a variety of topics. Some possible topics are:

- Conditions which allow learning
- Social, physiological, and psychological factors which influence the pupil in the learning process
- Attitudes and values of the teacher
- Communicating with parents
- Observing and evaluating pupil behavior

Think Shops. "Think Shops" or brainstorming meetings can serve as a means for creating new and innovative ideas in education. Specific objectives or purposes should be defined for each "Think Shop." Prearranged lectures can be presented to all participants in order to promote thinking and to provide topics for discussion. The "Think Shop" should provide teachers and consultants with an opportunity to interact and exchange ideas about teaching and learning by utilizing small group meetings. Discussions can be transcribed and reproduced.

T-group meetings. The T-group meeting can serve as an opportunity for teachers to have a permissive discussion about their feelings and attitudes toward teaching. In these "group-centered" type of discussions, the teachers can discuss their attitudes toward teaching and the impact they have on others. This is the type of group dynamics study used successfully by National Training Laboratories.[6,7]* The T-group should meet at least eight to ten times on a weekly basis. A group leader with experience in T-groups should be available to the school. The Human Development Institute has a programed course in general relationship improvement which may have some use as orientation for T-group meetings.[8]

Sharing sessions. These sessions offer an opportunity for the staff members to meet informally and to exchange ideas about instruction techniques, utilizing materials, etc. The leader of the sharing session can be the reading coordinator or a teacher. Opportunities should be made for sharing ideas with non-public school teachers and other teachers in the district who are involved in experimental or special programs.[9]

II. **Unstructured activities:** A variety of unstructured activities should be used to provide a complete in-service education program.

Demonstration lessons. Demonstration lessons may be presented to the staff members by consultants, reading coordinators, or teachers. These would be planned programs based on teacher or staff request. Demonstrations would serve as a means of sharing new techniques, illustrating new materials, and showing how theory relates to practice. Demonstration lessons could be performed before an individual teacher in his classroom or before a group of teachers.

Displays. Displays of materials and other resources may be used for the purpose of promoting continued awareness and use of a variety of teaching aids in the classroom. These would be the joint responsibility of a reading coördinator, a counselor, a librarian, or a principal.

Independent study. Throughout the year teachers may use the professional library, make visitations, and meet with specialists and consultants.

Consultation. Consultation may be used by individual teachers or a group of teachers to discuss their concerns about teaching. Someone who has special competence in the areas of concern may be selected.

Tele-lectures. The tele-lecture facility, available through the Bell Telephone Company, can provide a convenient and low-cost technique for utilizing outside resources. The tele-lecture can serve as an effective means of contacting authorities, specialists, government officials, and master teachers throughout the United States.

Professional library. As a part of the in-service education program for teachers, a professional library should be established. This facility would enhance teachers' independent study and would serve to supplement other in-service activities. The professional library should be planned around the standards suggested by the American Library Association.[10]

The librarian in cooperation with the school staff should develop a systematic procedure for ordering books and materials. Emphasis should be given to materials from a variety of disciplines. All materials would be made available for circulation to staff members for home and in-school use. Selected materials would also be placed on loan to other professional educators and interested laymen.

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* On June 1, 1967, the name of the National Training Laboratories was officially changed to NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, associated with the National Education Association.

Program Evaluation

Special attention should be given to evaluating the in-service education program. Only through continuous evaluation can the effects of in-service activities on teachers and the total educational program be determined. Aaron[11] has suggested that the evaluation process should consider the following areas: 1) program objectives, 2) change in student achievement, 3) change in teacher behavior, 4) change in the attitudes of participants.

Both objective and subjective data should be used in evaluation. Evaluation procedures can include: self-report forms filled out by teachers, group evaluation meetings, structured interviews with participants, consultant opinions, and attitude inventories.

The time for innovation and improvement in the area of in-service education is now. The evidence of the need for in-service education has been consistently documented.[12,13,14,15,16] The ways and means of fulfilling the needs for in-service education are available, and good in-service programs can be of great value in developing truly professional teachers.

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IN SERVICE EDUCATON:
A NEW MODEL?

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NO other aspect of school administration offers a greater challenge for over-all improvement of education than does in-service education of the school staff. Most schools and school systems assume some responsibility for the continuing education of their professional personnel, and every year much time and many resources are allocated for this purpose. Yet, in spite of general acceptance of the need for in-service education, there is by no means general satisfaction with the countless in-service efforts. Nor have there been many innovations in this type of training for the school staff; in fact, there have been very few.

The need for new approaches to the in-service education of elementary teachers is clearly evident and the need is underscored when viewed in the perspective of large urban school systems with their increasing numbers of inner-city schools. It is the purpose of this article to describe one new approach that may provide an exciting model for the future continuing education of teachers from disadvantaged areas in large urban centers.

The initial impetus for this in-service education project was provided by the principal of the Benjamin Wright Raymond School, an elementary school located in a deprived inner-city section of the City of Chicago. Through his personal efforts and those of his faculty, several previous attempts had been made to improve the effectiveness of the educational program for the 1,400 Negro elementary students who attend it. Yet these dedicated inner-city educators continued to be dissatisfied and frustrated by the number and the uniqueness of the problems faced by the school. Many of their concerns are the concerns of elementary school principals everywhere—inadequate time for meeting and planning, committees which are not as productive as anticipated, teachers who continue to carry out their professional responsibilities in what Lortie[1] has termed the "Robinson Crusoe Syndrome" of classroom isolation, and an awareness that the full leadership potential of the faculty was not being realized.

The principal proposed that a week-long workshop be planned and sponsored jointly by the Midwest Administration Center at the University of Chicago and the elementary school itself. All members of the Raymond School staff, both certificated and non-certificated, were to be invited to participate in a resident-type workshop to be held at one of the Illinois

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State Park lodges during the entire week immediately prior to the opening of school in September 1966.

Two basic assumptions were accepted during the very early planning stages. First, the participants involved in the initial sessions were convinced of the value and need for an effective and viable liaison between public school systems and schools of higher education. The school staff expressed the desire to work with a team of university consultants familiar with group processes and change phenomena; the university personnel indicated concern over the serious shortage of laboratory situations in which change could be viewed as a real and on-going process. A second basic premise which received early acceptance was the belief that if improvement in the effectiveness of schools or school systems is to occur, needed changes can come about only through active involvement of the members within the particular school system itself. In other words, it was assumed that intervention from outside the system can contribute to change but is not the major factor in effecting change.

Changes, if they are to attain significance, must take place in an internal-external direction and not through outside imposition alone.

From this brief description, it should be evident that certain features of this proposal are atypical when compared with the majority of current in-service programs. Specifically, the initial innovations of such an approach to the in-service education of teachers were as follows:

1. The recognition that change, if it is to be effective, must come from within the schools
2. The involvement, therefore, of the entire staff of the school system, both certificated and non-certificated
3. The need for the development of leadership within the school, which led to the inclusion of faculty members in all phases of the planning
4. The concept of a residential workshop, thus allowing for the growth of *esprit de corps*, awareness, and understanding of group processes
5. The novel employment of consultative services to assist the faculty in understanding change processes, thus enabling them to deal more autonomously and effectively with their day-to-day problems, as opposed to the more conventional approach involving lectures on such global issues as "commitment to teaching" and "individual needs of children."

Early Efforts

In addition to acquiring the needed financial resources, the early planning included the appointment of a six-member faculty subcommittee by the Teacher Steering Committee of Raymond School. This subcommittee was charged specifically with coordinating the planning phase of the workshop and serving as a liaison between the university consultants and the Raymond School faculty.

The initial efforts of the consultative team from the University of Chicago were concentrated on developing an understanding of the more important problem areas faced by the teachers at Raymond School. A number of visits were made to the school and regular joint meetings were held with the faculty planning group. The university consultant team believed that the major goal of improving teacher competence and effectiveness could best be realized by developing the means through which the entire staff could better recognize the most important problem areas—the areas on which emphasis was most needed. Furthermore, it was considered imperative that the entire school faculty be mobilized as an effective agent for the cooperative solution of these problems.

Prior to the initiation of plans for the workshop, the University of Chicago had entered into an inter-university agreement with a number of higher education institutions[2] in a project entitled "Cooperative Project in Educational Development" (COPED). This joint endeavor is concerned primarily with the effectiveness of selected procedures for increasing the efficiency of schools and school systems when introducing and managing change. Fortunately, it was possible to relate the Raymond School Project to the broader COPED Project. During the 1965-66 winter and spring quarters, a COPED seminar focused on the in-service project, thus making it possible to enlist the experienced services of a number of highly competent graduate students.

Planning and Goal Determination

As mentioned earlier, the focus of the workshop was upon the perceived needs of one inner-city elementary school, its teachers, and its related milieu. In the early university-school joint planning meetings, emphasis was placed on this major purpose and on a number of operationally defined goals. The following objectives were established:

1. To identify common problem areas and responsibilities which confront the faculty of an inner-city school
2. To explore processes by which these problems may be resolved through cooperative faculty action
3. To practice various proved methods of group participation and decision-making processes
4. To employ role-playing techniques in the analysis of school-related problems
5. To provide a longitudinal evaluation of the project through the use of pre- and post-reaction interest and attitude scales.

In addition to defining these objectives, the group identified activities which could be employed effectively during the workshop. Care was taken to avoid an overemphasis on structure, thus providing sufficient latitude for daily planning and flexibility as dictated by the needs and interests of the group. It was agreed that no attempt would be made at the workshop to consider such "over-studied" topics as curriculum, child development, or instructional materials. Further préparation included provision for group social activities as well as time allocations for individual relaxation, study, and recreation. In this way it was possible for Raymond School personnel to devote a portion of their week to informal interaction with members of their own group.

Workshop Inputs

In order to improve the problem-solving capacity of the personnel of the Raymond School, the focus was placed on 1) the substantive problems which were faced by this school and 2) the improvement of group and individual problem-solving skills pertinent to the alleviation of these areas of concern. It soon became obvious that the attainment of the grand design above would be dependent on the cooperative efforts of all persons within the school organization. All staff members—both certificated and non-certificated—had to be encouraged and accommodated within the framework of the workshop design.

Three evening sessions were held for the specific purpose of engaging the entire staff of Raymond School in preparation for the August session. The first of these, a dinner meeting held at the Center for Continuing Education at the University, served a dual purpose. Through it, provision was made for a general introduction of all personnel connected with the workshop; more important, it provided a means whereby the problems faced by the Raymond School, its faculty, its pupils, and its community could be isolated.

Problem areas identified at this meeting were later incorporated within a comprehensive problem checklist which was then administered to all adults employed in the Raymond School. In this way, it was possible to obtain perceptions of the more important areas of concern to be considered at the workshop. These data, along with other relevant materials described later, were used to focus the concern of the participants. Through this type of approach it was hoped to release much of the latent leadership potential which existed among the faculty personnel.

Two other faculty sessions were held in June and were devoted primarily to the completion of assessment instruments needed to evaluate the perceptions of the school personnel prior to their involvement in the workshop. The data gathered at these two meetings were also used as a basis for problem identification and discussion during the summer inservice session. Similar data-gathering devices will be used upon completion of the project in order to measure changes in the perceptions of the faculty.

The final source of input data which were used as a basis for study during the summer took the form of taped interviews. It was decided by the joint planning committee that it would be of value to measure the perceptions of Raymond School students and parents. Tape-recorded interviews with randomly selected students were conducted by experienced university personnel during an experimental Raymond School student camping session held in May. Interviews with parents were completed by the teachers of preschool programs held in the public housing complexes in the Raymond School attendance area. The tapes of the interviews were edited and became an important part of the "workshop data bank."

The Group at Work

The initial two days of the workshop were devoted to the determination of expectations and major themes. In these early sessions an attempt was made to underline the need for faculty commitment to the concept of a cooperative, problem-solving approach. Some of the previously cited problems were introduced as a focus for determining the important areas of concern and a group analysis was made of these problems. Later small groups presented selected problems as the themes of skits—presentations which upon diagnosis revealed many previously unstated ramifications.

After the various problems had been translated into statements, the workshop assumed the task of defining targets toward which action could be directed. Most of the work on definition and further planning was done by work groups formed on the basis of personal interest.

Out of the lengthy list of problems identified, four major areas of concern were quickly determined. These were:

1. Teacher self-improvement (in-service training)
2. The improvement of meetings
3. Curricular-centered programs as opposed to child-centered needs and interests
4. School-community relations (which began merely as a consideration of home visits).

Much time was devoted to understanding the tasks involved and to translating this understanding into actions beyond the mere scope of individual initiative. Consideration was given to the types of needs which lead to action, to factors which aid or hinder groups in their efforts to move forward, and to organizational changes which would be required at Raymond School if the contemplated action was to take place and be effective.

The action proposals of the four sub-groups were presented to the entire workshop. As these presentations were made, each of four "listening committees" made an analysis of the recommendations in terms of 1) the organizational changes needed, 2) the outside resources required, 3) the time implications (scheduling), and 4) the areas of overlap. Following a review of these reports, the Teacher Steering Committee began to consider the various proposals and the means whereby action could and should begin. The final sessions of the initial workshop fell to the direction of this committee and to the administration of the school. Much of the focus in the last two days was on methods which could be employed to involve the faculty members who had been unable or unwilling to attend.

In addition to dealing with the substantive issues mentioned, the group participated in several skill training sessions. University consultants aided substantially with these activities. From the feedback provided both formally and informally, these training periods were among the most successful sessions held during the week.

To summarize this description of the activities of the week, it should be noted that the process closely approximated the phases of logical inquiry:

1. Diagnostic phase, based upon the input provided by staff-identified problem conditions
2. Alternative solutions phase
3. Organizational phase, including the testing of readiness and commitment as well as development of procedures on organizing to accomplish change
4. Statements of plans, as embraced by the four work groups

5. First steps in the plan.

Finally, it was considered desirable to hold two follow-up workshops at three-month intervals in order to reinforce the important aspects of the total program, provide consultative assistance to the group where needed, and permit a comprehensive evaluation of the workshop outcomes.

More Hard Work

The first workshop was specifically designed to allow opportunities for group growth, rather than to aid in the formulation of elaborate plans. One unexpected development emerged as the group members joined in self-awareness and as they overcame their general reluctance to express dissatisfaction. In this manner, the "hidden agenda" became explicit. This resolved around general dissatisfaction with the network of communication within the school, and resulted in calling for an intensive assessment and reorganization of the Teacher Steering Committee.

By the time the second workshop was held, this self-assessment was well under way. The follow-up session permitted a redefinition of "next steps," based upon various expressions of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the initial efforts at bringing about change. The four work groups, with the exception of the school-community relations group, had served their purpose.

The group as a whole focused attention upon one aspect of the school which was considered a real problem—that of student behavior in the halls, an issue which had been more or less ignored by the staff. Concentrated plans calling for greater staff cooperation were made in order to eliminate this problem. It is noteworthy that in a typical in-service training session, a topic such as this would rarely be deemed worthy of consideration.

The final workshop meeting continued the process of examining the progress made. By that time, the Teacher Steering Committee had been entirely reorganized—all roles on the faculty were now represented through elected membership, carefully planned agendas were being followed, subcommittees were assisting in administrative matters and the development of policy, and dysfunctional faculty committees had been eliminated. The problem of student behavior in the halls, previously a matter of genuine concern but one which had received apathetic reaction, had been reduced considerably in its severity. Skill training in the form of a micro-laboratory was being conducted. In short, progress continued in the development of group rapport and leadership, reinforced by small successes in earlier efforts.

The staff was then ready to assume an autonomous role in the development of future inquiry procedures. Obviously, the problems are not eliminated, but a better method of approaching problems appears to be evident at this point. The workshop ended with the writing of a proposal which would finance individual studies and change-efforts during the coming school year. Committees were formed to present the proposal to a possible funding agency as well as to the central administration of the school system.

Concluding Activities

One of the principal concerns of this in-service project has been faculty growth in problem sensing in order to provide for increased autonomy in decision making, planning, and problem solving capability. This goal has been considered in the proposed plans for the concluding evaluation. Carefully gathered evidence of changes affecting the school staff, the students of the school, and the related community will be reviewed. Evaluation techniques will be varied. There will be an emphasis on the readministration of previously selected instruments, along with repeated and substantiated testimony of the individuals concerned. Related records and other documents will also be examined. However, it is interesting to note that a number of changes have already been discerned informally by the faculty and others.

First, and probably most important, this social system known as the Raymond School has been opened up in such a way that continual renewal is now a possibility. Members of the staff—teacher aides, school nurse, teachers, engineers, cafeteria workers, and the principal—have all contributed voluntarily to provide a more productive milieu in which to teach and learn. There is a new awareness of the interrelationship and importance of all roles; staff members are assuming new roles; better planning is in evidence; and new norms of staff responsibility have been established. Above all, there has been a great improvement in sound faculty rapport.

According to the staff planning group, teachers have improved access to a broader range of materials and teaching methods—presumably to the benefit of students. In addition, a new relationship has been developed between the school and its community. Student tardiness and absenteeism have been reduced, vandalism has been curbed substantially, and interest in other neighborhood social programs such as those offered by the YMCA has increased.

This is not to suggest that three short workshops can solve all the problems of an inner-city school or of any school. But the model presented here does appear to have potential for bringing about needed change—change which educators must learn to initiate and sustain. When the final evaluation is completed, the benefits should appear in the form of greatly improved educational services to the youngsters in the community.

FOOTNOTES

1. Lortie, Dan C. "Teacher Socialization: The Robinson Crusoe Model." *The Real World of the Beginning Teacher.* Washington, D. C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA, 1966.

2. Other members are Boston University, Columbia University, Temple University, the University of Michigan, and the University of Wisconsin.

Teacher Preparation

ON BECOMING TEACHERS

ROBERT C. JONES

FOLLOWING a long period of evolutionary development, student teaching is now a recognized activity, receiving major emphasis in the preparation of teachers. Conant emphasized this fact in his study on teacher preparation when he stated ". . . the one indisputably essential element in professional education is practice teaching."[1] Students participate in a classroom situation, sharing the responsibility for guiding the learning process under the leadership and the help of a superior teacher.

Traditionally, undergraduate teacher education programs consisted of rather specific course requirements culminating in student teaching. Many scholars are criticizing this sequence because it separates theory and practice in an artificial manner. Scholars are also critical of the student teaching phase of teacher education.

The purpose of this article is to present the position taken by some authorities in this area and to discuss some of the implications of these proposals. In this presentation, *student teaching* or *student field experiences* will be considered as the period of guided teaching during which the student takes increasing responsibility for the work with a given group of learners over a period of consecutive weeks. A *cooperating teacher* is defined as one who teaches children or youth and who also supervises student teaching. The *university supervisor* is the college representative who is responsible for supervising a student teacher or a group of student teachers.

Robert E. Bills, Dean of the School of Education, University of Alabama, in a paper presented to a recent Association for Student Teaching National Workshop, brought out some penetrating issues in student teaching.[2] He suggested that the key to successful student teaching experiences is to provide an atmosphere conducive to changes in behavior—an atmosphere free from threat and one in which the prospective teacher is aware of the need to change. "And the teacher creates the environment wherein it is possible for the student teacher to become his experience."[3]

Bills observed that a very large percentage of the student teaching programs in America, if evaluated in this context, would be considered deficient because: 1) teacher approval and institutional grading requirements, forms of extrinsic motivation, thwart freedom; 2) student teachers are frequently evaluated on the basis of successfully mastering the recipes

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provided by the classroom teacher or institutional supervisor at the expense of his own style or personality; and 3) the classroom environment in which the student field experience occurs is more likely to reflect rigidity rather than flexibility. Bills concludes that students must discover how to learn and how to use themselves as instruments when helping others to learn.

Arthur Combs is another authority on teacher education who supports many of the concepts presented by Bills. Combs clearly and succinctly points out the inadequacies of the "competencies" approach to teacher education. He believes it is fallacious to assume that the methods of experts either can or should be taught directly to beginners. Instead, Combs argues for the "self as instrument" concept in teacher education. The student must discover what instructional procedures will work for him.

Teaching methodology becomes an exploration of purposes, techniques, self, and subject matter encountered in a broad spectrum calling for a laboratory approach to student teaching. Prospective teachers experiment, explore, evaluate, try out, and discover materials and methods used by successful classroom practitioners. Student field experiences are placed throughout the professional program rather than concentrated at the end of it.

Fred T. Wilhelms, Associate Secretary of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, reports an experiment in teacher education.[4] The traditional pre-set curriculum was eliminated. Continuing seminars were conducted in conjunction with planned teaching experiences in the classroom. Emphasizing sensitivity training similar to the T-group plan of the National Training Laboratories, the seminars provided opportunities for students to explore teaching together, to accept personal responsibility for their experiences in student teaching, and to study themselves and others in becoming teachers.

Each of the aforementioned men has expressed unhappiness with the status of many student teaching programs. They all suggest alternative courses of action, changes to the traditional approach for our consideration and study. Each of these authorities is extremely critical of the pre-set curriculum in teacher education. They all argue for an environmental setting for student teaching free from threat; and they agree that prospective teachers must be permitted the freedom in a classroom to discover, experiment, try out, and to find what works for them in teaching.

It is obvious that the alternative courses of action in teacher education suggested by these three individuals need additional study and experimentation prior to adoption. Federal funds for such a study have been requested. The implications of these proposals could have far-reaching effects upon teacher education. Some of these implications will be discussed.

Implicit in the proposals for a changed emphasis in teacher education is a laboratory approach to student teaching. Theory and practice would be integrated by having students take professional education courses and do student teaching during the same period of time. University class attendance and student teaching would be scheduled in such a way as to enable students to complete these requirements. Geographical location of the cooperating schools in relation to the university becomes of paramount importance. The student teacher might be in the cooperating school only four days a week instead of five. Some seminar classes would be conducted in the cooperating school for the prospective teachers during the student teaching period.

Undoubtedly student teachers would be in the public school classrooms for longer periods of time during a semester or a year. However, this period of time may not be continuous as is characteristic of many programs of teacher education now.

Such an approach in teacher education would call for a great degree of cooperative relationships between the public schools and the college or university. Each of these institutions must completely understand the objectives of teacher education and the role each would play in meeting these objectives.

In developing better cooperative relationships between universities and the public schools, the supervisory phase of the program will need to be changed. More students should be placed in one school. University supervisors should spend more time—from two to three days per week—in the public school classrooms. They need to guide the student teacher, assist the cooperating teachers, work with other classroom teachers, conduct workshops, and act as resource personnel to the school.

This approach in student teaching calls for a specially trained supervisor to work with student teachers. The supervisor focuses attention on the results of teaching instead of on what the student teacher did. They concentrate on "how student teachers feel, think, believe—about themselves, their students, their purposes, and the subject matter they are charged with teaching."[5] They evaluate the student teaching on the basis of the improvement and growth in teaching, exemplified by the individual student rather than by a comparison with other student teachers.

The public school-university relationships can be further strengthened by recognizing cooperating teachers, designating them as master teachers. They should be certified by the college or university to supervise and work with a student teacher. This recognition could involve released time from teaching duties when working with a student teacher. Another alternative would be to pay the master teacher for working with a student teacher. In either case, university, state, and federal funds or a combination of these sources for money would be necessary to reimburse the master teachers or the school system for released time.

The changed emphasis in student teaching implies bringing into focus the classroom situation for the placement of student teachers. It must be recognized that the classroom teacher is responsible for the instruction in that room and the students receive first consideration. Nevertheless, the student teacher must be given an opportunity to try out, experiment, and discover what works best for him in teaching. This calls for much more freedom in the classroom than student teachers are usually permitted.

Student teaching viewed in this way is no longer a process of emulating the classroom teacher; rather it is a process of experimenting with methods, material, and techniques demonstrated by the cooperating teacher. The cooperating teacher would need to be a superior teacher, willing to share his skills and teaching experiences and sufficiently secure to encourage student teachers to critically examine his teaching. The teacher continually learns about teaching, a learner among learners.

This kind of an approach to student teaching places increasing demands on colleges and universities. Some of them should accept the challenge to restudy the prescribed curriculums and segregated blocks of time for professional education courses followed by student teaching. The laboratory approach to student field experiences will present unique problems in scheduling and staffing. A degree of flexibility will be required in providing time for seminars and laboratory sessions where students come together to discuss, to question, and to evaluate what has been experienced in teaching.

The changed emphasis in student teaching will present many problems for both the public schools and colleges or universities. These are not insurmountable problems. They can and will be solved by the institution involved in teacher education if we all accept the challenge. Working cooperatively together, we are on the threshold of a new era in developing competent teachers who will face the issues needed in the profession today. These challenges must be met if the children in this nation are to receive the education society needs and demands during the next decade and the years beyond.

FOOTNOTES

1. Conant, James B., *The Education of American Teachers.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1963. p. 142.

2. Bills, Robert E., Dean, School of Education, University of Alabama, "The Education of Teachers: Knowing and Being," Keynote Address, 20th Summer Workshop, The Association For Student Teaching, Wisconsin State University, Oshkosh, 1965.

3. Ibid.

4. Wilhelms, Fred T., Associate Secretary, The National Association of Secondary School Principals, "A Challenge to Teacher Education," Address, 20th Summer Workshop, The Association for Student Teaching, Wisconsin State University, Oshkosh, 1965.

5. Combs, Arthur W. *The Professional Education of Teachers.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1964. p. 107.

SUCCESSFUL STUDENT TEACHING THROUGH EVALUATION

DONALD W. JONES

DESPITE the fact that much has been written concerning methods of evaluation, those who are responsible for evaluating student teachers are still apt to experience considerable insecurity. For a vast majority of the student teachers, questions of ultimate import remain unanswered. Among these questions are: "How well am I doing?" "Where can I improve?" "What are my strengths?" Many additional evaluative questions could be added. When faced with such questions, supervising teachers frequently find great difficulty in answering and experience considerable discomfort.

Evaluating the growth of student teachers is at best a difficult task. For quite some time, educators have been searching for reliable means of evaluating the success of *experienced* teachers. Numerous researchers have endeavored to isolate factors that might aid in determining teacher effectiveness and have met with limited success. There has been much disagreement [1, 2, 3, 4, 5] in the results of past studies, and the problem remains largely theoretical. These many contradictions have only contributed to the problems of assessing effectiveness.

It is an even more formidable task to evaluate the success of young, inexperienced student teachers from whom we must expect certain weaknesses and shortcomings. A common weakness in past attempts to evaluate student teachers has been the tendency to look at all things at all times. If college students were perfect, there would be no need for student teaching. The fact that we are attempting to examine growth, ability, and potential without the benefit of continued experience in the classroom over a period of years merely adds to the difficulty. Student teachers themselves cannot immediately contribute significantly; they possess only limited experiences that they may call on for comparison.

If there is to be purposeful growth during the student teaching experience, however, a sound program of evaluation is mandatory. A hit-or-miss program of judging the success and shortcomings of the neophyte teacher, a program that lacks direction and specificity, is not worthy of being included in the teacher education curriculum. The use of a "one-shot" evaluation form at the end of the student teaching experience will not satisfy the need for a thorough program of evaluation. What is needed is an ongoing approach which begins before the student teacher arrives and continues throughout the experience. Only then can evaluation become an integral part of the learning process.

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In order to develop an adequate approach to evaluation, the key figures in the student teaching experience must work closely together. The primary responsibility for the development of continuous evaluation must be shared by 1) the supervising teacher in the classroom, 2) the college supervisor, and 3) the student teacher himself.

As is emphasized in the 1960 Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching, one of the initial steps in developing a program of student teacher evaluation is to determine the major goals toward which the entire experience will be directed.[6] Depending upon the organizational structure of the student teaching experience (concurrent seminars on campus throughout the experience, partial time in on-campus seminars followed by full-time student teaching, or no college seminar or class directly related to the experience in the classroom), the approach to establishing evaluative procedures will vary.

Whenever it is possible, the college supervisor should *help* the student teacher discover his own personal goals and criteria for success before the actual experience begins; without goals, criteria for success cannot be established. The supervising teacher should think through this problem before the student teacher arrives and should decide on major objectives which he thinks are essential. Such early attempts to discover objectives are valuable, but the most important phase of goal determination comes during the first week the student teacher is in the school.

At this time, the supervising teacher and the student teacher should jointly answer the question, "What are we trying to accomplish?" The answers to this question should be operationally stated, not just theoretical constructs. The following scale, which relates to the Instructional Pattern, *may* evolve from this initial planning.

INSTRUCTIONAL PATTERN

Goals to Pursue	STRONG	ACCEPT-ABLE	NEEDS TO HAVE CONTINUED EMPHASIS
1. The student teacher established a positive set at the start of the lesson (enthusiastic and effective opening).			
2. The student teacher was well informed (he had a good grasp of the subject or topic under consideration).			
3. The lesson was well organized (both the student teacher and students had a clear idea of what was to be achieved).			
4. The student teacher exhibited concern and empathy for the students (he was much interested in **their** success and triumphs).			

Goals to Pursue	STRONG	ACCEPTABLE	NEEDS TO HAVE CONTINUED EMPHASIS
5. The student teacher used provocative questions skillfully (questions which would foster critical thinking and problem solving).			
6. The lesson reflected imagination and resourcefulness on the part of the student teacher (visual aids were used where appropriate).			
7. The student teacher summarized and clarified concepts periodically (particularly at the close of the lesson).			
8. The student teacher capitalized on students' questions where possible and gave genuine attention to their thoughts and ideas.			
9. The student teacher was able to gain the attention and participation of most of the students in the class.			

It is important that only one or two of these aspects of teaching be selected for evaluation at any one time. As the student teacher progresses in skill and experience, the evaluation should be expanded.

Very early in the student teaching experience, soon after the determination of goals, the student teacher and the supervising teacher should establish an understanding about the purposes of evaluation. This step is essential if the student teacher is to look forward to evaluation as a vital and necessary facet of student teaching and an indispensable aspect which contributes to his personal and professional growth.

After goals have been established, the student teacher and the supervising teacher should also discuss certain procedural questions:

1. Should the cooperating teacher write notes while the student teacher is at work?
2. Should the student teacher write daily evaluations of his progress?
3. Should the student teacher have a daily evaluation session at a prescribed time?
4. How can they make the best use of the evaluation forms provided by the college?
5. Shall they devote one session after school each week to planning and evaluation?
6. How can they measure growth in certain areas?
7. How can the college supervisor best help them in the evaluation process?

Certainly there are numerous other questions which could help in developing a realistic and worthwhile attempt to face evaluation head on and make a positive beginning.

If the student teaching experience is to develop in a purposeful manner, there must be a positive rapport and a clear understanding between the student teacher and supervising teacher. On his initial visit to the school, the college supervisor should review the goals and provide assistance in obtaining exactness and objectivity. Nebulous and abstract goals are of little assistance when evaluating success. While an attempt is made to achieve concrete goals, there will be problems in identification and definition. The possibility exists of a wide variance in the nature of the goals which are thought to be significant in terms of differing conceptualizations of the teaching process. For example, goals derived from Arthur Combs' analysis of teaching would focus on the self-concept and other internal states of the student teacher; those derived from Ned Flanders' analysis of teaching, which heavily emphasize the interaction of students and student teacher, would emphasize interpersonal relationships; and, of course, an analysis of teacher traits and characteristics results in differing goals for the student teacher.

The belief that the university has the right to impose a given set of criteria is in direct opposition to the spirit of cooperative endeavor. Conversely, the public school should not ignore research and developments in teacher education emanating from the universities. Certainly there will be commonly accepted objectives regardless of the orientation of the participants. Yet, it is in such situations that the strength of the eclectic approach becomes apparent. Both the college supervisor and the supervising teacher must take care to maintain the personal integrity of the student teacher as the team shares its differing beliefs about the teaching process. The procedure should in itself prove to be a valuable experience for any student teacher. Furthermore, such goals must be defined and designed for each particular student teacher, keeping in mind his strengths, his weaknesses, his prior experiences, and his particular needs.

Two goals that might commonly be accepted by various educators because of the narrow objectivity involved are: 1) the student teacher should become acquainted with the best possible means of utilizing audiovisual materials as teaching tools, and 2) the student teacher should become acquainted with and knowledgeable about the total school program. Both of these goals appear to be applicable to elementary and secondary level student teachers.

Having isolated the above goals toward which the student teacher, the supervising teacher, and the college supervisor may direct their energies, a series of appropriate activities can be planned. The cooperating teacher should be certain to make considerable use of audiovisual materials during the initial days of the student teaching experience when the student teacher is still observing. In addition, arrangements should be made for the student teacher to meet with the director of audiovisual services in the building. A visit to a commercial supplier of audiovisual materials should be a stimulating experience. The supervising teacher should encourage observations in other classrooms where teachers use educational materials and equipment in a professional manner. Constant evaluations of the skills acquired by the student teacher are important. The college supervisor should also assist by making materials from the campus available. The support and suggestions of the college supervisor help to reinforce the efforts of the cooperating teacher.

Prior to the actual beginning of student teaching, the college supervisor could set the stage for the achievement of the second goal. During group discussions, the importance of viewing education as a total process should be emphasized. The various functions and services of modern secondary and elementary schools should be recalled. Equally important, the college supervisor might assist the student teacher in his attempts to isolate some specific goals in this area through an individual conference. When the student teacher arrives at the school with some awareness of a need for a greater knowledgeability and understanding of the total school program, the supervising teacher can easily arrange for inter-school visits and for conferences with the superintendent, the principal, the guidance department, and the many special teachers. Numerous activities such as attending and/or assisting at school concerts, dances, plays, athletic contests, and other activities would be as helpful as direct contacts with parents. Of course, frequent discussions among the student teacher, the supervising teacher, and, upon occasion, the college supervisor or the principal, or other teachers are also necessary.

At this point, it becomes possible to evaluate the progress made toward the achievement of these goals. An evaluation of the experiences chosen is also obtainable. Again, there is need for each of the above people to participate. However, the major responsibility will reside with the supervising teacher, who will initiate and pursue the major portion of the evaluation program.

Among the guiding principles of an evaluation program that are presented by Curtis and Andrews is one which stresses the importance of student teacher growth in self-evaluation.[7] This should become the nucleus of evaluation. Student teachers want to know what questions to ask of themselves and how to acquire the answers. By tactful guidance both the college supervisor and the supervising teacher can pose—for (and with) the student teacher—questions that invite self-appraisal.

Whenever possible, particular emphasis should be placed upon evaluating specific teaching skills, special problems, and isolated objectives. When an unusually fine opportunity arises for the student teacher to emphasize motivation, such as the beginning of a new unit of work, special provision should be made in advance to evaluate the degree of success experienced by the student teacher in achieving in his pupils an interest in and a desire to learn about the new area.

Much could be said concerning the many possible methods utilized in the actual evaluation program as it is actively pursued. However, for the purposes of this article, it will suffice to insist that many means of collecting information should be utilized. Sole dependence upon a single evaluation form provided by the college does not lead toward the broad, continual evaluation suggested here. The success of any attempt to evaluate student teachers as they function in the classroom, in the school as a whole, and in the community depends upon establishing a sound rapport among the student teacher, the supervising teacher, and the college supervisor.

In closing, the following suggestions are presented:

1. Evaluation must be carefully planned for; worthwhile appraisal of student teacher growth does not happen automatically.

2. The focal point of the evaluation program should be the student teacher's growth in ability to practice self-evaluation.

3. Suggestions should be directed and specific. Statements such as, "I couldn't see any major faults" or "You're getting the general idea" are of little value to anyone, particularly the student teacher.

4. Questions, doubts, and uncertainties must not be kept secret. Only when *all* concerned feel free to discuss problems, as well as strengths, can evaluation make the vast contribution of which it is capable.

FOOTNOTES

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2. Curtis, Dwight K., and Andrews, Leonard O. *Guiding Your Student Teacher.* New York: Prentice-Hall, 1954. pp. 286-317.

3. Ellena, William J., and Biddle, B. J. *Contemporary Research on Teacher Effectiveness.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964.

4. Gage, N. L., editor. *Handbook of Research on Teaching.* Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1963.

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6. Boykin, David G. "Principles of Evaluating in Student Teaching." *Evaluating Student Teaching.* Thirty-Ninth Yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., 1960. pp. 12-13.

7. See Footnote 2.

RESEARCH INTO TEACHING AND TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS

MORTON D. WAIMON

DURING the past five years, a number of researchers have taken a new approach to the problem of improving classroom teaching. This new approach might be characterized as a systematic attempt to map teaching behavior as it occurs in classrooms. These researchers want to *describe* teaching, rather than to prove that one type of teacher or teaching is better than another. They enter the classroom prepared to record what is going on. They do not enter with an observation instrument which will determine what they will see and which requires them to make subjective ratings. After obtaining a sample of the linguistic behavior of the teacher, the researchers classify the teacher statements in the sample; that is, they look for relationships among the teacher statements they have obtained and form categories or classes of statements. In this way, they derive a set of concepts that enables them to give order to the data and make an objective description of it. Many educators believe that such studies will eventually result in concepts of teaching that will be more related to pupil achievement than any studies which have been developed to date. Whatever the case, the studies which have already been made can serve as a model for developing a teacher evaluation system that is superior to current practices of using observation instruments and subjective ratings.

A model of research into teaching. As an example of this type of research, I would like to describe my own attempts to conceptualize and study teaching simply because they are most familiar to me. Other studies could be used as well, especially those made by such students of teaching as Bellack,[1] Hughes,[2] or Smith.[3]

The initial step in my particular study was to obtain the permission of ten elementary and junior high school teachers to tape-record lessons in their classrooms. These tape recordings were transcribed and studied. In studying the typescripts of the tape recordings, I began to see that various teacher statements served different functions in facilitating learning. A model of the learning process developed by Neal Miller[4] helped in arriving at this insight. Miller conceives learning, in all its forms, to be a matter of the presence of four components: 1) drive, 2) cue, 3) response, and 4) reward. Miller explains that in order for a person to learn he must *do* something, and he must *get* something. The teacher statements we had tape-recorded could be viewed as the obverse, or "mirror image," of these components of learning.

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Some teacher statements serve the function of getting pupils ready to learn. While these statements are not meant to be learned by pupils, they will facilitate their learning by making them willing to engage in the learning process. Such statements came to be called *Procedural Statements,* and they correspond to Miller's first component.

Other teacher statements serve the function of getting pupils to recall, acquire, or use subject matter. These statements facilitate learning by helping pupils draw upon their previous learnings in order to make new discriminations. Such statements came to be called *Substantive Statements,* and they correspond to Miller's second and third components.

A third category of teacher statements serves the function of giving pupils an evaluative teacher reaction to their substantive responses. These statements are not meant to be learned, but they facilitate learning by providing feedback to pupils as to the adequacy of their responses. Such statements came to be called *Rating Statements,* and they correspond to Miller's fourth component. The episode which follows illustrates how teacher statements differ in regard to the functions they are meant to serve in the learning process.

A Classified Teaching Episode

	P/gains attention/I
1. Teacher: When you are ready, we will start. Susan: Do we need our books out?	
2. T: Just wait and I will tell you what you need.	P/disciplines/R
Now today we are ready to discuss the Russian Revolution.	P/states goals/I
Jack, what is a revolution? Jack: It is when the people are very unhappy and they decide to get rid of the king or something. There is usually a lot of bloodshed, and then probably the new people get to be the people in power.	S/recall question/I
	R/positive/R
3. T: Yes. What revolutions do we know about? Tim: We had one!	S/recall question/I
Bud: Yeah, we kicked the British out of the colonies. Mary: Cuba had a revolution a little while ago.	
4. T: What about that? Mary: Well, this man Batista kept all the money and land and finally there was a revolution.	S/more effort/R
5. T: Who can tell us more about this? Bill: Castro is the dictator now. He came out of the hills. Charley: He looks more like he came out of the trees.	S/more effort/R
	P/disciplines/R
6. T: That's enough of that!	
Now, what happened in Cuba? Mary?	S/recall question/R

Mary: The people were poor and a few men had all the money. They started a revolution and threw out Batista, and now Castro runs the country and everything is just as bad as it was.

R/neutral/R

7. T: Well, maybe.
   I think I have been hearing you say that revolutions arise when conditions are bad in a country. That the people or some group of people arms itself and deliberately sets out to gain control of the government of the country. When this happens we say there is a revolution. S/relates responses/R

   Now what about the Russian Revolution? Who knows some facts? S/recall question/I

When teachers say such things as: "When you are ready, we will start," "Just wait and I will tell you what you need," "Now today we are ready to discuss the Russian Revolution," they are trying to facilitate learning by getting their pupils ready and willing to learn. The teacher does not intend that the pupil responses evoked by such teacher statements be learned. On the other hand, teacher questions such as "Jack, what is a revolution?" "What revolutions do we know about?" get pupils to recall, acquire, or use subject matter. The pupils responses evoked by these teacher questions are meant to be learned. When teachers evaluate the responses of their pupils with such statements as "Yes" or "Well, maybe," they mean to facilitate learning by providing pupils with feedback which pupils need in order to confirm their responses. Pupils are not supposed to learn these teacher statements, but to learn their own statements which preceded these teacher evaluations.

Statements that have been grouped together under one of the three functions can be further subdivided into categories that describe the specific action which is being performed in order to achieve the function. "When you are ready we will start" is a *Procedural Statement;* it might also be labelled an act of gaining attention. "Just wait and I will tell you what you need" would be classified as an act of disciplining pupils. "Now today we are ready to discuss the Russian Revolution" is an act of stating goals. "Jack, what is a revolution?" is both a *Substantive Statement* and an act which might be called asking a recall question. Other acts into which *Substantive Statements* can be subdivided are relating pupil responses; giving additional prompts; adding information to a pupil response; etc. In like fashion, *Rating Statements* can be subdivided into action categories such as giving a positive rating; giving a negative rating; or acknowledging a pupil response, but not rating it; and so forth. The important point is that a particular teacher statement can be classified two ways. It can be categorized by the function it is intended to serve in facilitating learning, and it can be categorized as an action taken to achieve the function.

Actions can be further subdivided into one of two categories. Some actions precede a pupil response and initiate the pupil response. Other teaching actions follow a pupil response and are initiated by the pupil response. Asking a question, for example, initiates a pupil answer.

Disciplining a pupil, on the other hand, follows an inappropriate pupil response. During any lesson, the teacher and his pupils continually exchange roles. At times, the teacher provides stimuli and the pupils respond. At other times, it is the pupils who provide the stimuli and the teacher responds. Actions which precede a pupil response are called initiatory actions, whereas actions that follow a pupil response are called reflexive teacher actions. In training teachers, it is important to make this distinction. Initiatory actions can be pre-planned. Reflexive actions, on the other hand, have to be made on the spot.

In planning for a lesson, it is important to think about problematic pupil responses which might occur and to anticipate what reflexive actions might be taken. Sometimes, of course, problematic pupil responses cannot be anticipated. Charley's comment that Castro looks more like he came out of the trees than the hills is an example. The teacher's statement "That's enough of that!" indicates he was taken by surprise.

After a classification system was developed from this study of teacher statements, judges were trained to use the system reliably in classifying teacher statements. Each teacher statement in our sample was classified into one of the three functions, subdivided into one of the actions, and finally the actions were subdivided into initiatory or reflexive categories. When this was finished, it was possible for us to count the total number of teacher statements which were made and the number of teacher statements which were made in each category. This enabled us to make an objective description in terms of percentages of what teachers in our sample did in actual classrooms in order to facilitate learning.

Improving Teacher Effectiveness

Describing teacher behavior is only the first step in a program of pre-service or in-service teacher education. Teacher education programs have as their primary objective the improvement of teacher effectiveness. Consequently, in order to use research into teaching in teacher education programs, some system must be developed that will enable teachers to identify shortcomings in their present teaching behavior, to project better alternatives for themselves, and to practice making these better responses. The following system has been developed for helping pre-service teachers analyze teacher effectiveness and to practice making better teaching responses. Statements about working with pre-service teachers hold equally true for a program of in-service teacher education.

The first step in this program of pre-service teacher education was to have students study typescripts of teacher behavior and to classify teacher statements using the concepts developed in the research. After classifying teacher behavior, the students evaluated particular statements for effectiveness. Evaluations involved addressing this question to each teacher statement: Given this function, is this the best statement that can be made to achieve it? Answering this question involves contrasting the function the statement is intended to serve in facilitating learning with the actual form of the statement. Such contrasts reveal weaknesses in particular statements and enable evaluators to think of better alternatives. For example, the statement "Now today we are ready to discuss the Russian Revolution" serves the function of making pupils willing to place themselves in the learning situation. The students felt that it was not likely to achieve this function and suggested the following as an alternative: "Today we are going to learn how a small group of men gained control over a nation. This will help you understand what can happen in many backward countries today and why the United States is involved in the affairs of these countries." After students have evaluated a number of instances of goal stating, they are ready to generalize about how to perform this act. One generalization students have made is that teachers should let the pupils know what they will be doing at the end of the lesson which they are not now capable of doing and why this new behavior will be important to them.

As we have said, many pupil responses made during a lesson are problematic. Problematic pupil responses are those which constitute obstacles that must be overcome by the teacher if he is to achieve the goals of the lesson. The typescripts contained many instances of problematic pupil responses and illustrations of how teachers deal with these problems. Charley's joke on page 109 is a problematic pupil response, and so is Jack's inability to give a satisfactory definition of the concept of revolution. The teacher must therefore perform a reflexive action if he is to achieve his goals. Once we have decided what function a reflexive teacher statement is intended to serve, we can make a judgment about its effectiveness. Instead of saying to Charley, "That's enough of that!" students have suggested that the teacher lead Charley back to the subject being discussed by saying, "You don't like Castro. Tell us why." In helping Jack to give a more accurate definition, the teacher might ask an easier question than the one which initiated his response. He might ask "What is the difference between a revolution and a war?" After a number of instances of teacher reflexive statements are evaluated, students can generalize about how teachers ought to deal with various types of problematic pupil responses.

Practicing teacher responses. After prospective teachers had classified and analyzed the behavior of more experienced teachers, they were given opportunities to practice making teaching responses themselves. To do this, a technique developed at Stanford University called micro-teaching was used. Micro-teaching differs from regular teaching in that it is a scaled-down experience. A typical micro-lesson lasts from five to fifteen minutes; it is built around a single concept or goal; and it is taught to three to five pupils. In each micro-lesson, students concentrate on a single teaching action. During the first several lessons, they might practice gaining attention or stating goals. Later they might practice asking different types of questions, giving information, or reinforcing pupil participation. Each lesson is recorded on videotape and, during playback supervisory sessions, the student is helped to evaluate his own performance and project new goals for improving it. Following supervisory sessions, the student teaches the lesson to a new group of students and again evaluates his performance. This continues until the student and his college supervisor are satisfied that the student is capable of performing a particular teacher action effectively.

In-service teacher education. Current systems of in-service teacher education are based on two misconceptions. The first of these misconceptions is that it is possible to recognize the ideal teacher or ideal teaching by watching a person teach. Research has shown low correlations between subjective observer ratings of teachers and measures of pupil cognitive achievement. This misconception has grown out of teacher effectiveness research which has attempted to describe the master teacher. A second misconception is that a teacher can improve once he is informed of his ratings on various categories of teacher effectiveness. This type of feedback is *not* likely to work, not only because the concepts used in most observation instruments lack validity, but because they also lack meaning. Teachers do not know what they must do in order to raise their ratings. New research into teaching offers teachers better concepts and more meaningful feedback.

Psychologists have demonstrated that the ability to discriminate and categorize one's own behavior is basic to an individual's ability to function effectively in his environment and to learn from his experience. Research into teaching offers conceptual systems that will enable teachers to discriminate among the wide variety of behaviors which they are called upon to perform in classrooms. More than this, research into teaching offers in-service teachers the means whereby they can begin to judge their own level of effectiveness and to set new levels to be attained. A teacher gains an important insight when he realizes that in order to get his pupils to think and express their own ideas he must ask questions like "What are some possible explanations of the Civil War?" rather than questions like "What caused the Civil War?" Form follows function in teaching as elsewhere. In the final analysis, teacher effectiveness depends on the individual teacher achieving greater mastery over his own linguistic behavior.

Finally, research into teaching has demonstrated the part modern technology can play in in-service teacher education programs. These research studies are based on the ability of the researcher to obtain inexpensive fixed records of teacher and pupil behavior. Tape recorders and closed circuit video tape recorders are within the budget of almost every school system. Such devices enable a teacher to obtain a permanent record of his classroom performance. This can be played and replayed as often as necessary for study. Frequently one look at his teaching behavior is enough to help a teacher break away from sterile patterns of teaching and to adopt new standards for his own behavior. Administrators and supervisors can contribute to in-service teacher education by creating an environment that encourages teachers to raise levels of aspirations and by supporting teachers as they strive to achieve these aspirations.

FOOTNOTES

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School–
Community
Relations

PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS: STUDY YOUR COMMUNITY

MALCOLM D. SWAN

HOW do the parents of your pupils earn a living? What makes their community tick? What are the issues and problems facing the neighborhood or city in which your school is located? If your teachers have satisfactory answers to these questions, they probably use them.

Where do your children go when they leave the classroom? What do they do? What are their homes like? Do they have work responsibilities? What playgrounds are available to them? Teachers with answers to questions like these probably look differently at their pupils than those teachers who do not have such information. And they probably teach differently, too.

What is needed in your school's community? What do the people expect of life? Where are their children headed? Answer these questions and your teachers may help them to reach these goals—or even to set higher ones.

What is close at hand in the community that directly relates to classroom study? What is there to bring the studies down to earth, to bring them out of the clouds and faraway generalities to the concrete here and now? If you and your teachers know, their teaching probably means something to your pupils.

Our century of progress and urbanization has moved teachers farther and farther from their schools and students. In years past, teachers commonly stayed with parents of pupils (sometimes on a rotating basis) and worked at various other occupations in the community during vacation periods. Often they were expected to participate and take part in the social life of the community. They "knew" their pupils under many circumstances; they knew their parents, their communities, and what was happening.

More and more, however, teachers have moved away from the communities in which they teach. Many teachers now commute long distances between home and school. They often live in entirely different communities and under entirely different circumstances from those of their pupils. They are interested in the problems and social activities of their own neighborhoods and communities rather than in those in which they teach. As a result, these teachers and their pupils have little in common and small basis for understanding each other. They have no common fund of direct experiences upon which to draw examples for illustrative purposes.

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Not long ago, I heard a suburban elementary school principal near Chicago describe an experience with several of his teachers. They had attended a workshop in another community and returned before school was to be dismissed. Rather than send his teachers to the classroom that late in the day, he spent the time in the automobile with them cruising the neighborhood and pointing out the homes in which the children lived. "That was the best hour of in-service training I have ever provided my teachers," he said. "They had no idea about the homes in which these kids live or even the area from which they come. This little trip explained a lot of things to my teachers."

Admittedly this is superficial and there may be a tendency to "explain" too many things on the basis of what can be seen from the outside. However, it illustrates the point. His teachers had taught here for some time, but they had not ventured "across the tracks" or into the neighborhoods away from the school. They knew almost nothing about this community or about the most important forces that affect their pupils —forces that help to determine what and how much they learn in school. If the old axiom to "know the child before you teach him" has any validity, one should be concerned about this situation.

Another aspect deals with what is to be taught. The middle-class values of the teacher often seem ridiculous to pupils from lower-class neighborhoods. Teachers have been guilty of promising a "star" to encourage children to eat a "balanced breakfast"—one such meal costing more money for one child than is available to feed the entire family.

I can recall instances in which high school teachers demonstrated a lack of understanding of their community problems and local government. For example, one teacher told a problems of democracy class that he was purchasing his automobile license plates across the county line and explained the advantages of doing so. When later questioned about this, it was evident he did not know that 1) this was illegal, and 2) most of the money collected in this way was used to operate the local school and to maintain the roads on which he and his students travelled to get there. Despite this man's background and university training, he seemed to have little appreciation for the problems of his local community.

Another teacher (the owner of considerable property in this school district) was a chronic complainer about the rate at which property taxes were rising and the apparent slow rate at which teachers' salaries increased. She seemed to fail to recognize that most of the revenue raised through property taxes contributes to teachers' salaries via a general fund and that the two are closely linked.

These are not unusual cases. In general, many teachers have not been familiar with or interested in local problems, particularly problems of the school district. This may date back to when school business and budgets were closely guarded secrets, and persons trying to find out about them were considered "nosey." Actually, the structure and operation of the school system should be a part of the school curriculum. This is a branch of government directly and immediately affecting every student, and one that is convenient for study.

Teachers undertaking a community study are usually surprised at the variety of resources available for their use. Most schools are within walking distance of parks or "natural" areas. Usually nearby are businesses affording opportunities to bring mathematics and social studies concepts closer to reality, and an array of private and governmental facilities, many designed for education. Short bus trips make many others available. Every community or city has environmental problems that provide excellent material for classroom study and discussion. When studying air pollution, water supplies, transportation problems, and so forth, those examples in the local community should receive priority. Often it is convenient to bring resource material or resource people into the classroom. Yet, unless teachers know something about them, they are unable to judge their potential.

A partial answer is for the teachers in a building or school district to systematically examine their community in order to 1) become familiar with it, and 2) identify and become familiar with the resources they can use. This can be done as part of an in-service program or in cooperation with a nearby college or university. If done as an in-service project, it might be coordinated or led by the district's subject matter specialists. Outdoor education, science, and social studies specialists, in particular, should be involved. Possibly the district could employ a university faculty member as a consultant or in a direct leadership role.

Obviously, much advance planning is necessary if a program of this nature is to succeed. Representatives from each school building and the administrative staff should meet with representatives of the local Chamber of Commerce and other governmental, civic, and service organizations. In these meetings, the school personnel can discuss the purposes of the study with the community leaders, solicit their cooperation and assistance, and directly involve them in the work. Bringing school personnel and community leaders together for these planning sessions has considerable "fall-out" value in itself for many teachers have little or no contact with these people. Business leaders frequently say that the school people seldom "come around" except when they want money or are pushing a tax increase. This is an opportunity for the school personnel to become genuinely interested in what others in the community are doing.

Along with two associates, I recently assisted in a community study of this nature by 58 teachers in the West Aurora, Illinois, school system. This was organized through the extension program of Northern Illinois University for those enrolled in a three-credit workshop course designed specifically for this purpose. The science consultant served as the coordinator for the project.

Three teachers or more from each of the eleven West Aurora elementary schools participated. The group wanted to a) become familiar with outdoor teaching principles as applied to community resources, b) become familiar with resources in the Aurora area, c) analyze their curriculum to determine ways to use these resources, and d) construct a Community Resource Guide for the school district.

Their initial meetings were devoted to the first objective: determining how the group would proceed and agreeing on the kinds of information they needed. The first phase of the study—and one occupying considerable time and bringing more surprises than expected—was analyzing the school sites for teaching purposes, collecting information, and developing teaching activities in which the resources on these school sites were utilized. These resources ranged from obvious ones such as flagpoles, sundials, trees, and building materials to less conspicuous ones such as heating plants, soil and water erosion areas, and cracks in the pavements.

The second phase of the project dealt with "natural" areas within walking distance of the school buildings. These included vacant lots, parks, fields, abandoned railroad rights-of-way, and so forth. The Aurora schools and Park District have had a long history of cooperation, whereby the Park District has developed a number of areas for outdoor education purposes. Included is a program to provide many types of trees and shrubs near each of the schools. The Park District also has acquired a large tract of land and is developing it primarily for educational purposes. Included in their plans is a "Children's Farm," a small lake, and eventually classroom facilities. Yet, some of the teachers seemingly were unaware of the many nearby areas they could use or of the school-park cooperation. As in other phases of the study, committees of teachers actually went to these sites and examined them.

The third phase of the study dealt with "man-made" resources. Teams undertook the task of visiting each of the industries, businesses, museums, and institutions in the school district. In doing so, the teachers met persons they would contact when arranging to use the facility, examined the resources, and made judgments about their use in the teaching program. As expected, some businesses were closed to teachers and their pupils, mostly because of liability considerations.

Another phase of this study dealt with resources outside the school district. Committees visited places that had been identified as possible field trip sites, made analyses as to their suitability for teaching purposes, and collected information about them. In addition, each of these teachers took his own class to two places they had examined. One of the places could be visited on a "walking field trip" and the other on an "extended bus trip." Even though this district encourages teachers to include these kinds of experiences in their programs, this was a new experience for some teachers.

The outcomes of work like this on the part of teachers should be evident. On the one hand, teachers become aware of their "teaching community" and find how it can help to vitalize instructional programs. On the other hand, businessmen and citizens find that the schools are interested in the community and teaching about what they are doing. One teacher said that when she called the manager of a manufacturing concern to discuss bringing her children to this plant he seemed very hesitant. He later told her that she was the first teacher in ten years to make such a request, and his first reaction was to refuse. Once committed, however, he spent the next few weeks wondering what he was going to do with those kids when they scattered all over the place and what he could do that would possibly interest them. He was ready on the "big day" with several assistants, and they divided the children into small groups. The men were surprised at the interest, questions, reactions, and conduct of the children. "Bring another group soon," they told the teacher. Obviously this is good public relations for the school as well as for the business. Most important, it is good education.

THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE IN SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

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WE would like to begin by defining school-community relations in a negative manner; that is, by describing what it is not. School-community relations is not a high-pressure selling campaign; it is not a bag of tricks designed to propagandize the public into believing something that is not true; nor is it something you become concerned with only when you have a referendum to raise the tax rate or a bond issue to build a new school building. Instead, school-community relations has two main functions: 1) to raise the level of public understanding through information programs, and 2) to enlist community support by drawing citizens into meaningful participation in school affairs.

School-community relations is a two-way street. It means understanding the other party—the public—so that it can be helped to understand you, the school. It means listening as well as talking. It is not the mere giving of information because this does not guarantee understanding. Real understanding is best cultivated by the interaction of school and community through a variety of contacts and by those human relationships that bring about mutual respect. Abraham Lincoln once said, "With public sentiment nothing can fail. Without it nothing can succeed."

The need for school-community relations programs is threefold:

- The board of education is lawfully and ethically accountable to the public. As a body responsible to the state and to the citizens whom it serves, it is obligated to supply full and accurate information on how tax monies are being spent, how property is being utilized, and how children are being educated.
- The public school can succeed only to the extent that it holds the understanding, interest, and confidence of the people. In a democracy the public school belongs to the people, and it cannot progress beyond the current level of public opinion. Educational policy is public policy, and only the citizens can make public policy in a democratic society.
- The best education for children requires cooperation by all the elements of a community that touch their lives. The school is only one force in the total educational setting. However, it is the one agency serving all the children, and it is in the best position to exert leadership in stimulating cooperative efforts among all the various agencies of a community interested in the welfare of children. Wide public support is

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essential in handling the demands of those pressure groups that would use the school as a means of furthering their own bigoted ends.

Although this article deals primarily with the role of the principal in school-community relations, we cannot disregard or minimize the role played by the classroom teacher. The teacher is probably the most influential factor in developing public opinion concerning the school. A successful school-community relations program is founded on an outstanding educational program and on the end product—pupil progress, which is always its own best advertisement.

Planning the Program

Both principal and teacher must operate within the framework and limitations established by the superintendent of schools and the board of education. If the school-community relations program is highly centralized, the principal will merely carry out the orders directed from the central office. Fortunately, most school systems do not operate in this manner. Instead, they are organized along a partially decentralized or coordinate structure. This type of structure frees the principal to build public relations within the general policy framework of the central office and allows him and his staff to develop strategy and tactics best designed to meet conditions within his own attendance area.

To a great extent, the principal's personality will determine the success or failure of a school-community relations program. The image he conveys includes such things as his personal appearance, sense of humor, diplomacy, social manners, ability as a public speaker, and ability to meet and attract people to him. Nevertheless, the most crucial quality that a principal must possess is a democratic attitude. No principal who is an autocratic or laissez-faire type administrator can expect to have good school-community relations. If he is autocratic, he dominates the people within the school to further his own ends. If he is the laissez-faire type, chaos, conflict, and dissension will result. In a truly democratic atmosphere, people will work to their utmost capacity in a spirit of cooperative effort. It is in this type of atmosphere and surroundings that good school-community relations are developed.

The principal has many duties with regard to operating and maintaining a good school program. Generally speaking, his sphere of operation includes the school building of which he is principal and the attendance area served by the school. His major function is to do everything in his power to carry out an effective instructional program. He must put into operation the instructional program and supervise the instructional activities, provide professional leadership, carry out board policy, and develop and maintain optimum school-community relations.

Understanding the community. In developing and maintaining optimum school-community relations, the principal has many duties. He must be constantly aware of what is going on within the attendance area that his school serves. He must know the community which the school serves —its needs, values, and goals. To do this effectively, he must continually study the community from which the school population comes and be aware of changing conditions in it.

The principal must constantly strive to improve his relations with the community. This is a continuing process of which every good principal is aware. He should not try to do all of the planning by himself but at times must involve his staff, the superintendent of schools and other central office personnel, the students, and the citizens of the community. A cooperative effort in planning is much more rewarding than an individual effort. The general policy or plan for school-community relations may be similar for all of the schools in the district. However, specific plans must be designed to meet the varying needs of each individual attendance area.

Once plans have been developed, the principal should then consider what people or groups of people to involve in implementing the plan. It is necessary for him to bring people together into closer relationships and greater harmony with the school. He must know what groups exist, what their interests are, and what possible contribution each group could make. For example, he should be aware of the role of the PTA and other parent education councils so that their help can be enlisted in the community relations program.

Utilizing community agents. After studying the community and its agents, the principal must then study ways in which to utilize these community agents. This is generally done by assigning staff and non-staff members to work with these community groups. Every person in the school is an important person and should be intelligently entrusted with the type of school-community relations activity in which he is most certain to be successful. The principal should always utilize specific talents. If he assigns identical tasks to all staff and non-staff members and disregards their specific assets, he will only handicap the program.

Organization is needed because of the nature of school-community relations and because of the many people who are involved in it. The principal must have a clear-cut plan and should establish procedures for setting and keeping it in motion. One type of organization sometimes used is the permanent school-community relations committee within the school. Membership in the committee is often determined by interest and special abilities. The size of the committee may vary from year to year depending on the scope of the program. The committee should be informed on organization and should not be limited to any one category of personnel. Nonprofessional personnel, such as clerks, secretaries, and custodians, should not be excluded from membership on the committees. No member should be overworked regardless of how much talent he possesses.

Hence, the principal plans the school-community program with a knowledge of conditions existing in the community, community organizations, and available lay and professional help. A well-balanced program will produce closer contact and harmony between the school and the community. Emphasis on effective and direct home and community contacts will produce long-term and permanent results.

Helping the staff to understand the program. The success of any school-community relations program depends to a great extent on the attitudes, abilities, and skills of the personnel involved. Each person must have an intelligent understanding of the program and must be aware of its possibilities and its dangers. Since the school-community relations program is an integral part of the total school program, the principal should see to it that each staff member understands the program in its entirety. To do this, he may seek help from public relations consultants or from key personnel within the school system. An adequate professional library containing materials on school-community relations may also be helpful. In the final analysis, the success or failure of any school-community relations program depends on how well the principal performs his duties.

Carrying Out the Program

In executing the plan or program, it is important to keep the ultimate purpose in mind—that is, to educate the community relative to the objectives, values, and needs of education. What happens in the school and what the patrons of a community think is happening might be diverse enough to warrant spending appreciable time in bridging this gap. Patience is a most vital virtue in this process.

Continuing research is essential to any school-community relations program. All possible means should be used to ascertain any change in the community's attitude toward the school, its personnel, and the program it offers. The principal can determine to some extent the attitude of the school patrons by having school-question clinics, by noting the number of parental visits, and by determining the amount and kind of support he receives. An alert principal will be continually studying the community and its patrons.

Maintaining the right climate for the program. The principal's role in working with the staff has already been briefly mentioned, but more needs to be said on this matter. One cardinal principle is that the earnest and active participation of the entire school staff will be secured only to the extent that the principal works with his staff in a democratic manner. A democratic attitude is essential in fostering internal as well as external good school-community relations. The principal must be concerned with staff morale at all times because good school-community relations begins with good human relations and maximum job satisfaction within the school. He needs to be aware of the importance of a democratic atmosphere, a sound personnel policy, the need to prevent and resolve staff conflicts, and the proper utilization of the entire staff.

A democratic climate requires regular and active staff participation in resolving problems that affect the school and community. Generally speaking, the degree of enthusiasm that teachers have for their school is directly related to the degree of participation they need and enjoy. This right of participation means frank, open, and easy discussion without fear of being reprimanded. Much valuable assistance from staff members is lost if such members fear the principal and other administrative personnel.

Developing a sound personnel policy. A sound personnel policy is a must. Such a policy will foster better morale if it is developed democratically by the teachers and other staff members in cooperation with the principal and his administrative superiors. Personnel policy should include provisions for selecting staff, placing them in appropriate assignments, stimulating their professional growth, and judging and recognizing their accomplishments for salary and promotional purposes.

Occasionally, it may be necessary for a principal to dismiss an incompetent staff member—an unpleasant task for any principal. Yet, it may be the only course of action open. If the teacher has tenure the situation becomes more complex because of the legal rights of the teacher. If a staff member fails in the performance of his professional responsibilities either in the school or in the community or both, the principal must remove him before he destroys the morale of the entire staff and extensively hinders good school-community relations. A word of caution here: a principal must be tolerant of human frailty and must be cognizant of individual differences. He should do everything in his power to help an incompetent staff member improve.

Utilizing in-service training. The principal must be aware of the value of in-service training in school-community relations. One of his first tasks in instituting a program is the education of all personnel for good school-community relations. The purposes of an in-service training program for improving school-community relations are to develop an understanding of:

1. The need for good school-community relations
2. The ways in which a school-community relations program will be beneficial to the school and to each staff member
3. The community and the school system and responsibilities of each staff member
4. The media and techniques that can be used to promote good school-community relations.

One instrument of value is the school handbook. The school handbook should contain facts about the community, the purposes of a school-community relations program, and a list of reminders of everyday contacts through which good school-community relations can be built. Specific problems may arise that can be adequately solved through an in-service program. One thing a principal must be on the lookout for is the danger of swamping his staff with education in school-community relations. The staff must not be overburdened to the extent that their classroom effectiveness is hampered. If this happens, one can be sure that the school-community relations program will suffer.

How staff can help. There are many ways in which a principal can help himself in fostering good relations with the community. In a number of these, the staff can be of primary value.

- One of the first things the principal can do is to endeavor to employ teachers and other staff members who have a variety of interests and associations. Without a doubt, teachers have the right to choose their own religious, political, and social affiliations. However, there is nothing unconstitutional about a principal seeking the widest representation possible for his school staff. The nature of the public school imposes the obligation of contacts with various interest groups. A school staff cannot take its message to the patrons of a school unless it has contacts with the many diverse religious, political, and social groups of the community.
- Second, he can introduce staff members, especially new ones, to community groups and organizations in which they indicate an interest. He can do this by personally introducing them or by getting help from staff personnel and lay citizens who are members of these groups and

organizations. Nothing is more effective than the personal contact.

- Third, he can share the glory or limelight with his staff. A principal is often deluged with invitations to speak to community groups and to serve on committees. At times these invitations can create an occupational hazard for the principal. He should solicit the help of teachers and other staff members in filling speaking engagements and serving on committees. This not only gives the staff and community a chance to get together, but it also strengthens staff morale.
- Finally, a principal should work very closely with the non-teaching personnel—custodians, secretaries, cafeteria employees, bus drivers, and similar personnel—in promoting good school-community relations. Principals sometimes tend to overlook the importance of these people. If non-teaching personnel are to serve as agents in the public relations program, the principal must also provide in-service training for them. For example, the secretary should realize that she builds good or poor public relations every time she answers the phone or answers a visitor's question. The custodian needs to understand the importance of courtesy when adult groups use the building, and the bus driver needs to understand his public relations role in his everyday contacts with pupils and their parents.

Maintaining an office for community relations. The principal has the daily concern of operating his office effectively. Every principal should keep in mind a number of points. It is desirable that a principal maintain regular office hours for the convenience of visitors. Visitors should not be kept waiting too long. While they are waiting, they should have comfortable seating facilities. A variety of reading materials should be available. Good educational journals should be part of the reading material. Genuine hospitality is necessary and punctuality is a must. These little things count so much in making friends and in fostering good school-community relations.

Handling conflicts. Conflicts may and often do arise between the school and the community. Oftentimes they are minor at the onset, but frequently they spread to unbelievable proportions unless measures are taken to resolve them early. Differences of opinion are generally the most frequent causes for discord and conflict. These differences are usually cultural, religious, economic, political, professional, or social in nature. An example and explanation of each type of conflict will follow.

The effectiveness of a school is directly related to the instructional program and to the beliefs and practices of the people living in the district. Difficulties arise when school personnel attempt to introduce changes and practices into the curriculum that are foreign to the people in the community. In this way, cultural conflicts arise. The school must educate and inform its patrons in order to secure acceptance of necessary changes. Conflict situations are aggravated when school personnel adopt the notion of institutional infallability; that is, the school can do no wrong. However, it must be remembered that the school does not exist by divine right. The school is not perfect, and school personnel are human and capable of being wrong. The job of bringing about harmony between school and community is largely the job of the principal. It is a job in which he will need the assistance of his staff.

Economic conflicts grow out of differences between the school and neighborhood retail and recreational places of business. Campaigns to solicit advertising from local merchants can sometimes go so far as to create animosity in the businessman. Poolrooms, drugstores, and other such places tend to attract children because of young people's need for friendly meeting places. However, in some of these places there may be pornographic literature, pinball machines, and other gambling devices that might force school officials to put these places "off limits." This "off limits" policy does not increase the merchant's love for the school. The solution to these conflicts requires intelligence and patience. An understanding of the needs of children by the school officials would help in that these needs could be satisfied on the school premises.

Where partisan politics influence school operations, seeds have been planted for conflicts of a political nature. These types of political conflicts seem to be on the decline. In fiscally dependent districts, however, much of this political "back scratching" goes on. Political conflicts are almost impossible to resolve within the school district, and the principal should make an effort not to involve himself or the school in partisan politics.

Professional conflicts grow out of the individual differences found among teachers and other staff personnel. Differences in philosophy, practice, administration, personal and professional security, restrictions on the freedom of teachers, and mistaken concepts of personal loyalty can lead to conflicts. In order for the staff to operate at maximum efficiency, conflicts among its membership have to be minimized. A sense of humor helps, and the principal and teachers must cultivate patience with and faith in their fellow workers. As was mentioned earlier, if one of the staff members is the rumor spreader, troublemaker, or rabble-rouser, it will be necessary for the principal to discharge him from his position.

Religious conflicts are generally the most difficult to resolve because of the difficulty in reaching agreement. The emotional element may come into play in the resolution of this type of conflict. Understanding, tolerance, and patience are necessary in resolving religious conflicts. The development of understanding, friendly relationships with all religious sects, and as much cooperation as possible will serve to deter violent religious conflicts.

Social conflicts are generally caused by differences between teacher and child, teacher and parent, and between the conduct of the teacher and the folkways and mores of a community. Conflict between child and teacher often leads to conflict between teacher and parent. In the beginning, the parent is naturally inclined to support and defend the child. When such a conflict develops, the principal must often help to resolve it. Complete understanding on everyone's part should be sought. The principal cannot afford to have parents angry with him or w his staff.

In summary, school-community relations ought to be recognized as being one of the most important functions of the principal. His duties include organizing the school for public relations, working with the staff, working with the community, and constant evaluation of all school programs.

Reporting to Parents

THE GREAT REPORT CARD HOAX

GERALD W. ELLIS

REPORT cards reflect one of the great hoaxes that education inflicts on the parents and children of our communities. The typical report card neither adequately reflects true academic progress of the child nor reflects his bona fide relationships with his peers. Historically, report cards have been and continue to be primarily instruments of reward and punishment. Both reward and punishment are equated in terms of pupil behavior and not in terms of academic success, or even in terms of academic effort.

What happens when a report card based on gradation marks (A, B, C—superior, average, below average, etc.) goes home? Several possibilities arise. Let us assume that a child receives an "A." In that instance, his mother might do one of three things. First, she can give praise and full credit to the school and to the teacher, which would be reasonable, but not likely. Second, she could reflect on his maternal heritage—a common practice. Third, she could laud the child for easily doing what he can do easily.

If the boy next door brings home an "F" on his report card, mother again has several alternatives which she can pursue. First, she can damn the school, which would be a likely but unreasonable practice. Second, she can reflect on his paternal heritage—a common practice. Third, she could condemn the child for failing to do what he cannot do.

As educators, we have long been dissatisfied with this kind of report card. We continue to use it because there seems to exist some argument of little foundation that contains the key words "but parents want. . . ." The fact of the matter is, parents do want to know the progress of their children. They want to know how well their child is doing within the framework of his abilities and within the framework of his course content. Yet, one of the reasons why the popularity of a gradation report has remained with us for so long is that we have not satisfactorily provided parents with alternate means of reporting pupil progress. We have chosen to perpetrate the great hoax.

The necessity of reporting to parents has been a trying task for teachers throughout educational history. That we have been dissatisfied with report card systems can easily be illustrated by the number of report card committees existing today in school systems across the country. Each committee is charged with the responsibility of revising or rewriting

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report cards. Chances are better than average that school district "A" will develop a "new" report card form almost identical to the one being abandoned in school district "B."

While literature includes abundant mention of report cards, articles on the subject tend to be broadly philosophical or narrowly specific. The quest for an adequate means of reporting takes place usually by examining the reporting methods of other schools, which are in turn based on an examination of the reporting methods of other schools, ad infinitum.

In order to terminate the great report card hoax, schools need to stop duplicating what everyone else is doing and face the fact that they need to develop a document which does indeed provide an evaluative statement—and not a report of praise or condemnation for children. Report card systems that do other than report a child's progress in relation to his own ability are open to criticism. We tend to compare children and score accordingly without seriously considering the relative strengths of the classroom members or the relative strengths of previous classes.

Serious questions should confront those people who would want to change the marking system. There are some questions, for instance, relative to giving a failing grade to a child which should be explored. When an "F" for failure is placed on a report card, the teacher should be ready to answer these questions: Who failed? Did the child fail because he could not possibly succeed? Did the teacher fail because we as teachers did not adequately teach him? Did his parents fail because they did not create the home environment necessary for success? Did pedagogy fail because we have not learned to handle youngsters who are failures? Does psychology fail because we cannot identify and provide for children who get the failing grades? Does the child who receives an "F" have an opportunity to receive a better grade? Why should a child struggle and fail when he can fail without struggling?

Marks cannot be considered as an end. No one should be rewarded for good marks unduly, nor punished if maximum efforts still result in low marks. As previously mentioned, the report card is primarily a report of student behavior in class. The report card says, in effect, that teachers have identified learning outcomes usually in terms of deportment, and if a child has proceeded along the path outlined by the teacher, has caused little or no disruption, and is seldom tardy or unwashed, chances are he will receive an adequate grade. Usually there is no attempt to establish guidelines to determine exactly what we are measuring or how we are going to go about measuring it.

Some teachers assume that a report card reflects teaching excellence. If this is so, a teacher might wonder why some of his children fail. He can improve his own self-image by giving only good grades. Obviously these children earn an A and B because the teacher is good. The report card tells practically nothing about the pupil's progress. When we give a child a mark, we are attempting to summarize all of his efforts and all of his achievements for a period of nine or ten weeks in a single cryptic mark.

Besides the bold fact that report cards seldom report what they claim to report, three additional factors are usually ignored. Report cards do not reflect the child's ability to succeed, his effort quotient, or the impact of extraneous factors that have little or nothing to do with the subject. For example, the history mark often reflects such other factors as spelling accuracy, grammar, punctuation, and so forth. What are the solutions available to us if we are to eliminate the report card hoax?

A Suggested Solution

A solution to the report card hoax consists of four major elements. The first of these elements is that the marking system relates directly and solely to identifiable subject area objectives. This is the only way that validity can ever be given to the marks assigned. In other words, for any given subject, such as social studies, there would be several stated objectives for the course. In fact, these objectives might well be stated in such language as to include performance at a variety of grade levels. A teacher using a checklist type of objective identification could relate each child's progress specifically toward the attainment of the objectives. This would tend to eliminate extraneous factors such as spelling, grammar, or punctuation, as well as such totally unrelated factors as conduct and bearing. If for a given subject, there is a list of objectives stated in behavioral terms for which there is also a degree-of-accomplishment division, the teacher could quickly and easily relate a child's progress to the very particular subject for which he wants to assign marks.

A second element absolutely essential to proper pupil-progress reporting is that element which reflects the ability/effort ratio of each child. This carries with it the mandate that there should be no gradation type marks in a report system. It should also carry with it the implication that there is an opportunity for success for each child. When a teacher is asked to express a child's success in relation to a given group of subject area objectives in terms of his ability to attain these objectives, and in terms of his effort toward the mastery of the objectives, he is asked to do several things. First, he is asked to understand carefully the child before him. Second, he is asked to utilize all the resources available to him in this child's permanent record file or through specialized services to assist him. Third, he is asked to alter a program to fit the individual child. This is something always talked about as a goal of education. The report to the parent is a vehicle in which we do indeed convey to the parent the degree of success his child has experienced. We do not need to express to the parent the degree of success experienced by the other children in the classroom.

The third necessary element in the report to the parent is the element of positiveness. A progress report to parents should be exactly that—a report of progress, degrees of progress. A progress report should not indicate to the parents a void, a backsliding, or an absence of gain. Surely every child in the schoolroom does gain. When a progress report is based on positive assertions of gain, we have automatically eliminated one of the grand evils of the reporting system: the evil of rewards and punishment. A progress report stating the element of positiveness says to the parent in very graphic and simple language that his child is succeeding at the indicated rate.

The fourth element in the parent progress report is the element of parent-teacher conference, the face-to-face confrontation. The concept of the parent-teacher conference as a time when the parent is told of the misbehavior, the lack of learning, and the misadventure of his child is a concept which ought to be destroyed. The parent-teacher conference should be a critical approach between the parent and the teacher in which a true and analytical presentation of the child's progress is made. There is no reason why a parent-teacher conference cannot be a pleasant occasion. We tend to think of a parent-teacher conference as a method to force a child to conform to a teacher's demand by the use of a threat of parental pressure. This does not have to be. The parent-teacher conference is a time in which the teacher points out to parents the valuable and positive progress their children are making. There certainly is no reason why the teacher cannot say good things to a parent and say them in such a way that parents are happy that they came to school, happy to be the parents of the child under discussion.

In order for a parent-teacher conference to be a success, it must support two fundamental principles. The first fundamental principle is that the teacher be prepared for the conference with things he needs to say to the parent. He has a message to get across. He should make quite sure that in the course of the conference he has an opportunity to say everything that ought to be said. He should be able to ask questions, and he should be able to give specific answers. The second principle involved in the parent-teacher conference is the principle that states that a teacher has an obligation to listen to parents and has a responsibility to respond to questions a parent has to ask. A good parent-teacher conference is one in which nothing is left unsaid on either side which ought to be said. Both parents and teacher should leave with a better understanding of the factors that contributed to the progress of the child. Parent-teacher conferences should be used in addition to, and as a follow-up to the sending home of report cards. By simply using the subject area objectives that have been described as the first element of the reporting system, the teacher can provide graphically clear levels of progress not only on a subject-to-subject basis but on a continuum within the objectives of the subject itself.

A report card containing three of the above elements, and assuring the satisfactory execution of the fourth would look something like this:

THE RATE OF PROGRESS FOR YOUR CHILD IS:

	Well above expectations				Approximately within expectations				Somewhat below expectations			
QUARTER	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Arithmetic												
Counting skills												
Operational skills												
Analytical skills												
Concept development												
(Others)												
Teacher's comment:												
Reading												
Word-attack skills												
Vocabulary development												
Use of reference materials												
Selection, appreciation												
(Others)												
Teacher's comment:												

Such a report card could be used throughout the kindergarten-elementary school without modification. Topical entries would reflect the appropriate grade level interpretations. For example: Arithmetic counting skills for a kindergarten child could mean simply the sequential name-calling of the cardinal numbers one to ten. The sixth-grade counting skills might include counting mastery of all the rational numbers. For those topical headings inappropriate for a given grade, a teacher would so indicate the inappropriateness in the teacher's comment section or indicate it by the use of a cryptic mark within the vertical columns. There should be a "teacher comments" space after each of the subject areas so that an elaboration can be made at the precise time that the progress report of that particular subject is under scrutiny. To support his marks, the teacher needs only to refer to the subject area Objectives-Checklist. Not only will it direct his attention to the real purpose of the progress report, but it will also serve as a springboard to discussions during the parent-teacher conference.

Once we begin to report progress in subject mastery and this progress is supported by direct referral to stated objectives, we will have put an end to the Great Report Card Hoax.

The Principal's Role

Two significant tasks must be performed if pupil-progress reporting is to mature into the process advocated here. The task is the orientation of the parents toward the concept of true individualized reporting as opposed to the competitive, shot-gun methods currently in vogue. The second task is that of redirecting teachers toward the practice of really reporting what is claimed to be reported. The principal is the primary agent to execute these tasks.

As the official spokesman to parents about educational procedures, the principal is the one best qualified to present the reporting program to the public. As an educational leader, the principal has the obligation to work with his staff in developing appropriate reporting techniques, both written and oral.

HOME-SCHOOL COMMUNICATION

MADELINE C. HUNTER

"HEY, Mom! I'm home. Does Dad know anything about computers? We're gonna learn about 'em, so we gotta learn to work with base two. I'm hungry. What's there to eat?"

The refrigerator door opens and an important home-school communication has just been completed. The message carried the information that the content taught today is different from that of the past. Dad and Mother may or may not understand that content, but it is provocative and interesting to the learner. As a result, learning will not terminate with the school day.

We began with this example because the impact of the medium by which this message was transmitted cannot be overestimated. It is in daily use; yet it is often overlooked or ignored by educators as they focus on other more formal modes of communication. Therefore, in planning for effective home-school relationships, we must begin with the premise that the essential ingredient is a fine educational program which produces a happy, productive, learning student. No amount of public relations-based communication can replace or alter the impact of the educational message inherent in an unhappy, frustrated, nonachieving learner.

This "state-of-the-learner" message, carried home daily by each student, is unmistakable and irrefutable; yet it is not completely satisfying to parents for it carries no causal explanation and, consequently, no cues for modification or extrapolation into the future. It also lacks the relationship of the learner's performance to norm-based criteria which the parent understands—that is, "what he *should* know or be learning." Even more important, there are no indices of the interventions possible if one wishes to alter or reverse the message.

In a parent-teacher conference there is opportunity for the educational message, conveyed verbally or nonverbally by the learner, to be validated or refuted by the message from the teacher. This conference adds 1) the interpretation which is so very necessary, 2) essential dimensions of desirable changes in the learner which seem possible, and 3) information about what home and school might do to accomplish or expedite those changes.

A conference that affects a successful presentation to a parent of the state-of-the-learner and what can be done to enhance or remediate

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that state is still not the total necessary educational message. The school bears two additional fundamental communication responsibilities. The first is to develop a parent body that is informed about the purpose, policy, program, potential, and problems of the local school. The second is to create a voting citizenry literate in state and national educational problems and sophisticated in the promising innovations and research-attested solutions to them.

Thus schools have the responsibility for communication at four levels of increasing generality:

1. The message from the learner himself—that is, "the state-of-the-learner"
2. The message from the teacher which consists of additional information plus interpretation, extrapolation, or plans for modification
3. The relationship of that message to the parents' understanding of the local school—that is, "the-state-of-the-school"
4. The more general educational "state-of-the-nation" message.

The frequently held assumption that a "nice-to-have-had-Johnny" parent conference, much less a report card, could fulfill this fourfold communication responsibility is obviously naive and must be replaced by a deliberate, carefully planned communication system designed to accomplish precisely specified objectives at all four levels.

A nongraded school with its commitment to individual diagnosis, custom-tailored educational prescription,[1] and a school organization designed to create a pharmacy of educational alternatives from which that prescription can be filled should produce the optical daily state-of-the-learner message. Because the philosophy and organization of the nongraded school emerged as a result of the application of research in learning to the many problems of the graded school, the nongraded school has the potential for developing learners who are more successful and who progress more rapidly. As a result, the message carried home daily by the learner is more likely to be the one Dad and Mother are hoping to hear.

It is at the next level of communication, teacher-to-parent, where the nongraded school faces a unique challenge, for the message of diagnosis and prescription is new content often expressed in vocabulary to which the parent cannot attach meaning. Small wonder Dad wishes to know if his son is getting an "A" or an "F" in fifth-grade reading. This is vocabulary to which he is accustomed. While it really conveys little educational meaning, at least he knows whether he should be proud or humiliated and whether to reward or to punish.

The successful parent-teacher conference in a nongraded school must be based on parents' understanding of new educational concepts expressed in unfamiliar vocabulary. "Individual differences," "sequential learning," "alternative placements," and "continuous progress" are some examples of the many important concepts that are generic to communication between home and school in the nongraded program. It is essential that the nongraded school deal with this responsibility for building a foundation of understanding rather than try to convey a message or explain a program in a language the parent doesn't understand.

While time can be taken in a parent conference to attach meaning to this unfamiliar vocabulary, usually it can be more efficiently and economically done in parent groups. Therefore, in a nongraded school a program must be designed to familiarize *all* parents with the philosophy and rationale of nongrading and the research on which it is based. This implies teachers' and principals' literacy in and comfort with these concepts, something that is not possible if the nongraded organization is arbitrarily imposed upon a reluctant or unprepared staff or installed because it is a fashionable educational device. Obviously, the rationale of nongrading must be expressed in terms which have meaning rather than in the typical pedaguese so laced with statistical concepts that it is incomprehensive to most parents and, unfortunately, to many educators.

Mothers and fathers do have the necessary foundation for understanding nongrading. They are keenly aware of the visible differences in size, shape, rate of physical growth, and personality of their children. They know that the treatment that works with one will not work with another. Through experience they have learned that the frustration which will make one of their children work harder will cause another to give up. They know that they can *tell* one child but must *show* the other. They know that something stimulating to one is exhausting or debilitating to another. They know that Mother can handle one child better than Dad can, but Dad can handle the other better than Mother can. They know that one can work rapidly; the other needs more time. These lessons have been well learned in most families.

This knowledge of individual differences is basic to understanding the concept of nongrading. It is the task of educators to design learning opportunities for parents so that this knowledge will transfer from the familiar family situation to the unfamiliar territory of the academic setting. Adequate provision must be made to minimize (it's impossible to eliminate) the negative transfer from the over-learned errors of parents' own school experiences and the universal stereotype of the astrologically based graded school.

This type of learning is often best accomplished in groups where parents can look at an educational picture of a typical graded classroom. Graphs, charts, and pictures can present educational differences in as vivid a way as their physical counterparts. Variation in height and breadth of reading ability can be understandable as inches in stature. The sequential ordering of learning can become as obvious as layering bricks for a wall. In mathematics, the range in computational abilities and ability to understand numerical relationships which necessitate a different educational treatment for each learner can become comprehensible if skillfully "taught," not just "told." The most difficult concepts—such as learners' differential response patterns to styles of teaching, modes of learning, sensory modalities utilized, and tremendous personality variance—are already well known to parents. They simply need to be identified at a conscious rather than an intuitive level as important properties of a child which can propel or impede learning, and, therefore, must be taken into account at school as well as at home in order to produce an effective educational program.

Next, parents must have these ideas translated into meaning in terms of their local situation. What will be changed? How are these changes rooted in a philosophy based on individual difference and related research? What will be the result of their application to the organization of the school? What are the differences in terms of the things a student will be doing? Most important, how will nongrading result in an educational environment where *learning for each child can be increased?* Lamentably, the fundamental purpose of nongrading—that of increasing learning—is often lost in the labyrinth of a different kind of class organization or instructional grouping. Most important, the belief that somehow it is a sin for an older child to be in a group with a younger one must be effectively laid to rest.

Only when a parent is able to deal with these ideas at the impersonal level of generality of the total school can he utilize them in the emotion-laden situation of separating "how I would like mine to be" from "how he is presently performing." This transfer of meaning is fundamental to a productive parent conference. Having understood the significance of differing teaching styles, a parent can apply this information when the type of teacher who appears to be most productive with her youngster is identified and prescribed. Knowing the potential for productive peer group manipulation makes it possible for the parent to consider more objectively the reasons for the composition of certain instructional groups to which her child has been assigned. Comprehending sequence in learning tasks should do much to alleviate the "fractions-in-the-fifth-grade" syndrome which is the vestigial notion that plagues all educational change. As educators we need to look at all the "why-can't-they-get-it-through-their-heads" problems and hold ourselves accountable for the same learning gaps in parents that the nongraded school was designed to eliminate in their children. Acknowledging and accepting this responsibility, the nongraded school needs to develop a sequence of learning opportunities prescribed for parents (usually group meetings) which are designed to close those gaps.

It is interesting—but incomprehensible—that educators in a nongraded school can deal comfortably and fluently with the fact that Johnny cannot jump from counting by tens to percentages without some sequential intervening steps. Yet those same educators may flail resentfully and unsuccessfully at the problem of parents who can't jump from the traditional, predictable lock-step of the graded school to the multidimensional sensitive variance of nongraded organization.

It is imperative to realize that the relatively simple notion of reporting pupil progress through parent conferences rests on the success of two highly complex learning environments. One is designed for the traditionally accepted learner—the student who is to be educated. The custom tailoring of his educational environment for maximum learning has resulted in nongraded schools. The second learning environment rests on identical educational principles—those involved in custom tailoring the learning opportunities needed to develop knowledge and understanding in the parent body which supports the nongraded school. Schools must create effective educational environments for both of these groups of learners, or successful and satisfying parent conferences cannot become a reality but will remain a superficial exchange or camouflage of which all participants are suspicious.

Only if they fulfill their educational obligations related to the state-of-the-learners and state-of-the-school can educators focus productively on the content of a successful parent conference. Here interviewing theory from the field of social work is the data source which guides us—a source notable by its absence in the preparation of teachers. The fact that teachers probably hold more interviews than do members of any other profession makes their lack of preparation in interviewing techniques only more incomprehensible.

Social work identifies four important assumptions upon which a successful interview or conference must be based:

1. An interview is a contract between two people in which both are contributing and receiving. The purpose of this contract should be clearly established so that each party is aware of and agreeable to its limitations, and neither is anticipating an outcome not possible within this contract.
2. Any productive interchange between two people is infused with the emotions inherent in their interaction. These emotions should be recognized and dealt with to prevent interference or distortion of the message.
3. The physical setting of a conference must be one conducive to focus and as free as possible from distractions or anything that might indicate that the interview was a routinized procedure and not important to teacher or parent.
4. At the termination of the conference, the satisfactory achievement of its purpose must be consciously evaluated to determine to what degree the initial contract has been fulfilled.

Translated into the setting of a parent conference, these principles indicate that the purpose of the conference must be clearly established. Is it a conference to elicit from the parent information relevant to the teacher's understanding of the child so that educational planning can become more precise and productive? If this purpose is established, the parent will not expect to find out exactly how his child is doing in each subject area after the first few days of school.

Is the purpose of the conference to convey an accurate picture of the performance of the child at this moment in time? If so, a discussion of his first-grade teacher or the problems of American education is clearly out of order.

Is the purpose of the conference to plan ways of enhancing, dealing with, or changing the learner's present behavior? If so, we should have already established what that behavior is so that time is not wasted on "he-is-he-isn't" discussion.

While a conference may cover more than one of these categories, it is important that we identify which one is in immediate focus so that teacher and parent are not tuned to different channels with the resultant static and interference in communication. Usually, it is more productive to first hold a conference for the purpose of getting acquainted and eliciting information from the parent and at a later time schedule a "state-of-the-learner-and-what-we-plan-to-do-about it" conference. Obviously, time available dictates whether we can afford the luxury of several conferences or must economize and telescope all purposes into one interview.

Related to the purpose of the conference is the emotional loading inherent in any human interaction. If parent or teacher is dissatisfied with the results of his efforts, the possible defensiveness or resentment should be recognized and taken into account or it will block accurate encoding or decoding of the message being transmitted. Acknowledging feelings by "I suppose we're uncomfortable because we both want so badly for him to succeed" can do a great deal toward freeing each member of the conference to hear the other. "You really must be anxious to hear how your child is functioning in a nongraded school" can recognize and dignify the very normal anxiety of a parent whose perceptions are contaminated by the memory of a very different kind of school organization. "I'm sure you're wondering why we aren't memorizing spelling lists or diagraming sentences" acknowledges the justifiability of a parent's illiteracy in contemporary curriculum and methodology.

A climate for productive communication between parent and teacher exists when 1) the setting is protected from distractions; 2) the purpose of the contract for interchange in the conference has been identified and mutually accepted; and 3) the presence of personal feelings has been acknowledged and made acceptable, rather than denied or repressed. At the termination of the conference, an inquiry into the degree to which expectations and identified purposes have been realized provides an index of the success of that communication.

Now let us turn to the main body of content in the parent conference. What information does the parent have a right to expect, and what information does the school have the responsibility to convey? The parent arrives at the conference with information and feelings resulting from the daily impact of the message communicated verbally or nonverbally by his child. The consonance or dissonance of this message with parental expectations determines whether he is seeking validation, repudiation, or remediation. He has every right to this information. "How is my child doing?" is a legitimate question, not classified information which is the sole property of the school. Unfortunately, too often this information is sought only in the most obvious academic areas, and the answers are superficial and nonproductive when expressed in general terms ("fine," "not so well") or norm-based criteria (fifth-grade reading or 3.9 in math). The latter, even when accurate, unduly emphasizes the static rather than the dynamic aspects of a learner's progress and, as a result, gives only partial information.

Parents and teachers need to learn to ask and answer in language which carries more information. "He can read better than most boys his age, but he seldom does! For instance, ..." "She seems to understand what she reads but has a difficult time when she needs to apply the information in a new situation. Yesterday she . . . ." "He reads so well we are going to expect him to analyze the difference between authors' points of view. We plan to begin by . . . ." In each case a specific example of behavior needs to be cited so the parent knows the type of evidence on which the evaluation is based.

The state-of-the-learner message in a parent conference must deal with the child's position in each academic learning sequence and the degree of cognitive complexity with which he is able to operate at that position. "He can perform quickly and accurately all four operations in math. Now he needs to work on the analysis of situations so he is able to select the one appropriate for use. For example, yesterday when we were asking questions about the average daily rainfall, he wasn't sure whether he should divide or multiply." Or, "He reads well at this level. Before we increase the difficulty of the material, we are going to work for speed and increased interest in reading as a leisure-time activity. Just yesterday he . . . ."

Reporting a child's academic performance is essential, but it is only one part of an adequate parent conference. The same type of information needs to be communicated in other areas of major relevance to his success in learning. "Where is he in the development of intellectual, emotional, and social maturity and independence?" is a question parents need to learn to ask and teachers must be prepared to answer. Has the student learned there are other people in the world who have rights and to whom he has responsibilities, or is he still at the solo-flight stage? Has he developed effective ways of coping which vary with the problems he encounters in his environment, or does he always respond the same way, regardless of the situation? How dependent is he on adults to remedy a situation or propel his learning? Is he questing intellectually, or does he still need a teacher for "priming his pump"?

Obviously, the emphasis and time spent on such questions vary with their importance in accurately assessing and describing the performance of different learners. The omission or inclusion of each of these facets, however, must be the result of a conscious decision rather than happenstance or feelings of the moment. Obviously, any omission of information, no matter how important, is defensible if it is made consciously on the basis that its inclusion would seriously interfere with learning. The decision may be made to omit *at this moment in time* information about a child's problem in math or in reading or on the playground, because discussing it would produce results inimical to the educational welfare of the learner or his parent. Notice *"at this moment in time"*; we are simply rescheduling the information in a sequence of communications, not pretending it doesn't exist or sacrificing our integrity by not reporting it.

Now let us consider the responsibility of the teacher in the parent-teacher conference. An over-arching responsibility is to function in such a way that parents, having learned the degree to which information can be transmitted in a professional interview, will never settle for less. You don't hear the demands of "Back to the old ABC report card" from parents who have experienced truly professional communication concerning diagnosis and prescription for their child. "I didn't realize you knew him so well!" is a typical comment. To achieve this end, teachers must possess the relevant data on each child and have the skills necessary to interpret and transmit such data in a language comprehensible to the parent. This facility in communication is not easily come by but can be learned by almost any teacher who wishes to develop expertise in this area. It has been demonstrated that it is possible to design in-service educational opportunities with high probability of achieving this professional end.

The teacher's responsibility in a parent conference begins with presenting specific information about a child's performance at this moment in time, and extends into communication of the formerly unexplored area of how professional knowledge of learning theory[2] can be utilized to enhance this performance and raise it to heights hitherto undreamed of or achievable. Small wonder such a conference results in parental appetite for more complete and meaningful information than can ever be conveyed by a report card.

Does it sound like educational Utopia? It is! But research is pointing the way, and clinical application of that research is making the path more traversable than we ever hoped possible. Educators need no longer look at a learner's educational history as *the* predictor of his future; rather, they look to it as a data source which gives the clues necessary to make plans to extend or remediate the present, thereby enhancing the future.

These plans need to be communicated to the parent for two reasons. The first is essential to maintaining our professional integrity in communication. "It seems likely that your son's strength lies more in his social and persuasive skills than his intellectual ones; however, we are going to . . . ." Or, "We are concerned with Mary's seeming disinterest and lack of effort; however, we will try to increase her feelings of success and adequacy in an effort to increase her motivation to learn." The second reason for communication is the very real need for possible correction by a nonacademic perception, plus the essential out-of-school feedback which can come only from parents. "Johnny says he doesn't volunteer answers in school because the other boys and girls tease him when he is wrong." Or, "Suzy says she doesn't understand the social studies assignments and asks me to help her."

By combining the in-school and out-of-school perceptions, each building correction into the other, a powerful parent-teacher team can be operated with the common purpose of increasing a child's learning as its ultimate goal—the same goal which generated the creation of the nongraded school.

We now need to consider the fourth communication responsibility of the nongraded school, that of developing a voting citizenry literate in the problems of American education and the possible and promising solutions to them. Parents need to know that the principles of learning are pervasive whether the learner be gifted, typical, or disadvantaged. A school that addresses itself to the invariance of learning rather than to the spectacular, à la mode variants should generate a parent body that has an intellectual and emotional background for dealing productively with the educational problems confronting the nation rather than a parent body that is attracted or distracted by every crash program and dramatic panacea that crosses the national horizon. Such innovations as programed instruction, teaching machines, flexible scheduling, computer-aided education are placed in proper perspective and understood as promising means rather than as ultimate ends. This educational sophistication is not the result of superficial, vicarious experiences but emerges from direct experience with a program of research-based, viable education for their own children in a nongraded school. Needless to say, a parent understandably retreats to the "good old days" when his own child is not progressing satisfactorily. Successful school experiences, augmented by interpretation by school personnel, can be generalized to the education of all youth, regardless of ability, previous experience, color, creed, or socio-economic level.

In summary, let us review the communication responsibility of every school—a responsibility which has been brought into sharp focus by the productive innovation of nongrading. The first responsibility is to send home daily, through the medium of the learner, a positive state-of-the-learner message. The message is inevitable; the content of the message depends on the quality of the educational program existing within the school. The second responsibility is to validate or modify this daily message through the medium of a parent conference and extend it with interpretation, extrapolation, and development of plans by which it can be enhanced, modified, or remediated. The third communication responsibility is concerned with creating, by planned educational opportunities (not by wishful thinking or sheer luck), a parent body which is capable of receiving, understanding, assisting with modification or accepting the message transmitted in a parent conference. The last communication responsibility which educators can no longer ignore or delegate is the conscious and deliberate creation of an educationally literate citizenry.

Only by having accepted and fulfilled these four responsibilities can we as educators in a nongraded school achieve our goal of establishing productive parent-school relationships.

FOOTNOTES

1. See *Individualization of Instruction: A Search.* Howes, V. M.; Hunter, M. C.; Keuscher, R. E.; and Tyler, L. L. Education Inquiry, Inc. (Available from ASUCLA Student Store, 308 Westwood Plaza, Los Angeles, California 90024.)

2. Three books in a series by the author of this article illustrate application of research to the clinical situation: *Motivation Theory for Teachers, Retention Theory for Teachers, Reinforcement Theory for Teachers.* El Segundo, California: TIP Publications, 1967.

GRADES: SOME NEW IDEAS

RAYMOND I. CORSINI AND DON DINKMEYER

ACCORDING to the principles of field theory and Gestalt Psychology, changing one element of a system changes the whole system. Keeping this theory in mind, a good many problems in education could be solved simply if we changed our grading system. We used the word "simply" in two senses: it is possible to find another simple solution to the problem of evaluating children's school work, and it would be simple to do it. As a matter of fact, the change we shall suggest is rational and not at all radical in any logical sense. It would, however, be radical in terms of its applications and implications.

The suggestions we shall make may seem to be a panacea for all that is wrong in public education. We are as suspicious as anyone of panaceas, having too often been burnt by the simplistic solutions of others. However, many years of reflecting on the problem and having direct contact with the results of present-day systems of grading brings us to the conclusion that now is the time to consider the question of grading in the public schools. The question is: How should we change our grading system to have all the good results we want?

Let us first summarize what the grading system usually amounts to in the elementary and high schools. The system ordinarily consists of a series of letter grades, such as A, B, C, D, F, or numbers running theoretically from 100 to zero. These grades shown to students, given to parents, and sent to other educational institutions are intended to convey information. But what information? Regardless of what they *appear* to convey, grades usually tell us only how a certain teacher regarded a student or, in other words, how that student "fitted into" the classroom. As such, teacher grades generally turn out to be "personality ratings" measuring cooperation, conformity, and may predict other teachers' grades accurately. These grades are relative to the teacher's group. Therefore, since every group changes and every teacher has idiosyncratic standards, teacher grades may be as meaningless as any set of letters or numbers can be. They may be especially meaningless for deviate children; that is, those who are very bright and creative (their grades are usually low) or those who are very dull and conforming (their grades are usually high). For example, Magoun * discovered that

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* Magoun, F. A. "Scholarship and Distinction." *Technology Review* 37: 304, 1935.

most Massachusetts Institute of Technology graduates listed in *Who's Who in America* were in the lowest decile of their graduating class! The next highest decile—listed in *Who's Who in America*—was the first. The lowest decile was the sixth. In other words, if a person graduates from M.I.T., he is most likely to be entered in *Who's Who* if he has just barely passing grades; next most likely if he is Phi Beta Kappa, and least likely if he is just average.

Unfortunately, parents do not know all this. What they do know is that they want their children to receive A's in the belief that high grades are a passport to success in life (which is true, but only of academic success). Schools often have no other way of evaluating an entering student. As a result, they are forced to depend on such grades. After all, in competitive situations, any means of selection is better than none.

Yet, what do these grades mask? The high capacity child who is bored tends to receive variable grades. The teacher is either influenced by the quality of such a child's work, which raises his grade, or is affected by the child's attitude, which lowers the grade. The low capacity child who tries hard may receive high grades, while the low capacity child who is discouraged or defiant may get poor grades.

Such grades bring the wrath of the parents on the child when they are low and commendations for the child when they are high. Thus, in effect, grades tell the bright child to stoop low and adjust to the class; they tell the dull child to work like blazes; and they say to both, conform and fit within the system.

Recommendations

We would like to make several basic suggestions. *Those who teach should not grade.* If Jones and Smith teach English 1, Jones should test Smith's students and Smith should test Jones's students. This one step alone would reduce a great deal of student "apple polishing." Students would know that they would be measured by someone independent of the teacher. We know of no other situation in creation where a person rates his own work! It would be far better that both Jones's and Smith's students be rated by Brown—especially if Brown comes from another school. Under such a system, teachers can give quizzes, administer any kind of tests they wish, but the final grade, regardless of the type, is given by an independent agency. Teachers may continue to grade, but only for classroom behavior, cooperation, effort, and so forth.

Grades should be based on large-scale accomplishment standards. Students and parents should be given information about the level of work done by students. Suppose Sammy is in fourth grade and gets A in English, B in arithmetic, and C in social studies. What does this mean? If he reads at the 6.7 level, does math at the 4.3 level, and does 7.1 on a social studies test, all based on national norms, then these numbers might be meaningful. Similarly, if James in the fourth grade reads at the 2.1 level, does arithmetic at the 1.6 level, and goes below the second grade level in social studies, then everyone, including his parents, can realize that he is doing far below grade level expectation and that *something* should be done. Were he given grades of C, C, and D, then the implication would be that something is wrong with James's performance, that if he worked harder he could do better. However, such drastically poor ratings based on large-scale standards would alert parents that something serious is wrong and that James requires some kind of special assistance or consideration.

Grades should be interpreted in terms of aptitudes. Grades should be reported in terms of how the child did relative to his potential. Thus, if Sammy has a 200 IQ and in grade 4.6 does 6.7 in reading, he is actually *below* his potential! Far from being excited by the A he would get in English, or proud of his 6.7 in reading when he is only in the fourth grade, we would feel that a child who *could* be reading at the ninth grade level is coasting, not being challenged, and is a disappointment. And poor James may be really a hero, for his 2.1 reading level may be far beyond his potential. This is to say, James with the low grade may be the over-achiever, and Sammy, with the high grades, the under-achiever.

Consequences

Suppose a rational rating system were used, what would occur? Let us assume that every child were to be studied as carefully as possible, with a thorough psycho-education evaluation once every two years or so. Moreover, suppose that periodically every child were to be tested impartially and completely in terms of actual mastery of subject matters. Suppose all this information with suitable explanation were to be made available to students and parents, what might be some of the consequences?

- Parents would be upset. The truth would affect them strongly. They might be upset to learn that Harold is a little genius, that character who never does homework and who brings home C's and D's. They might be quite hurt to learn that Lurleen is inadequate intellectually, that her intelligence is in the bottom 10 per cent of the population.
- The schools would be attacked. Demands would be made on them. Teachers would be questioned. Administrators would be forced to deal with the need for new standards.
- After the initial fuss was over, placement in classes would become rational and greater homogeneity of ability would result. This would be a most desirable consequence.
- The enormous and harmful pressure on low-producing, low-aptitude children would be reduced. Parents would know that Howard, who works at the 20th percentile level, has only 15 percentile ability, and they would be kinder to him.
- School counselors, special teachers, remedial teachers, and other specialists would come into their own, meeting and attempting to solve problems.
- Since there would be greater efforts to learn the facts, more adequate evaluation and appraisal would result.
- The incidence of delinquency and neurosis would be affected since parents and teachers would deal with children in terms of facts rather than fantasies.
- Children would be happier. They would tend to be put in situations where they would be challenged, where they could learn at optimal rates, and where they would no longer be forced to learn what they

already knew or what they could not absorb. They might even learn to love learning.

- There would be a social utility value. The millions and millions, perhaps billions, of dollars wasted in polishing stones and dulling diamonds would be used effectively.
- Curricular changes could be expected. Schools might be revamped. Ineffective teachers might be located, changed over, or otherwise disposed of.

It is our contention that all arguments against objective ability and achievement testing are basically faulty. Regardless of how logical these arguments may appear (we can't test accurately enough; tests affect the curriculum; teachers would be testing against tests; tests are not democratic, and so on), the consequences of our present illogical and meaningless system are many times worse. It is our charge that the present system of grading, which tells us nothing of value and which is essentially falacious in concept, harms our children. The sooner it is changed, the better.

Guidance

STUDYING THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE PROGRAM

HARRY SMALLENBURG

MANY of the problems that concern teachers are related to guidance. If you were to ask the faculty of an elementary school to indicate some of the major areas with which they need help, you would receive a number of comments such as these:

"We should know more about the children we teach."

"I think we need to use our test results better."

"If someone would help me with just two or three of the youngsters in my class, I could do a better job of teaching the others."

"I need to know more about how to talk with Johnny's parents about his work in school."

"How can I obtain the findings of research studies in psychology, growth, and development?"

"We've been doing a better job of teaching the various subject areas. Now we need to do a better job of teaching our pupils."

Such comments as these add up to a need for a better school guidance program. They reflect a concern for understanding children better and for developing techniques of providing more effectively for their varying needs. A carefully developed and implemented guidance program can do much to help teachers work more successfully with children and to aid pupils in their emotional, physical, social, and intellectual development.

A faculty who want to strengthen the school guidance program should consider carefully the purposes, characteristics, and techniques of effective guidance services in the elementary school. They should ask: "Why is guidance important in a modern educational program? What are some of the major characteristics of a good elementary school guidance program? What is the guidance role of the classroom teacher? What is the role of the elementary school counselor? Of the school psychologist? Of the school social worker? How can we develop a team approach to guidance?"

This article discusses each of these major questions in a modified outline form. The format may be particularly useful for principals and teachers who undertake a similar study.

Why Is Guidance Important?

The importance of guidance in a modern educational program is

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certainly evident from the study of current literature.

1. "No society can afford to ignore the fact that one out of every seven men was judged to be mentally and emotionally incapable of serving effectively in its armed forces in time of war," admonished the President's Commission on the Conservation of Human Resources. In its analysis and study of factors most predictive of ineffective performance, the Commission found positive correlation between armed service rejections and separations of men with moderate or acute emotional distress and their poor educational backgrounds.[1]

2. In a report summarizing 28 different studies of California school dropouts and graduates, a basic recommendation was that "identification of potential dropouts should begin in the elementary grades. Ways of doing this in time to apply procedures are needed." [2]

3. Between 5 and 10 per cent of the children enrolled in the public schools have emotional handicaps of sufficient severity that they are unable to learn in school in the way children not thus handicapped can and are unable to employ the type of behavior required in the classroom.[3]

4. Emotionally handicapped pupils who are not identified early and given the help they need to eliminate their handicaps leave school just as soon as they find any opportunity to do so.[4]

5. A team of social scientists who surveyed a section of midtown Manhattan, New York City, reported that 23.4 per cent of 1,660 persons interviewed had "marked, severe, and incapacitating symptoms." Another 58.1 per cent were found to have "mild to moderate symptoms." This second figure is not so alarming as it sounds. A survey of physical fitness would probably show few people without some physical ailment or impairment, such as rheumatism or defective vision.[5]

6. The elementary school is in a favorable position to provide valuable guidance services to children. Parents can approach contacts with school personnel optimistically and constructively. Teachers who work with the children on a total-day basis can know their needs better and make adjustments to provide for optimum growth. The children themselves can change patterns more easily because of their youth and the lessened effect of "typing by their peer group." [6]

What Are the Characteristics of a Good Guidance Program?

An effective guidance program in the modern elementary school should:

1. Relate to and support the broad objectives of the total educational program

2. Focus upon the characteristics of pupils—their differences and similarities—physical, emotional, intellectual, and social

3. Provide systematic ways of gathering information about pupils: for example, cumulative records; standardized tests; interviews, case studies; observation and anecdotal records; conferences with parents; sociograms; and autobiographies

4. Provide systematic ways of using information with groups: grouping within the class; placement in grades and in classes; and group guidance

5. Provide systematic ways of using information with individuals through counseling—educational, vocational, social, and emotional

6. Provide for all pupils but make special provision for the exceptional child

7. Provide specialized assistance to classroom teachers, such as a counselor, a school psychologist, or a school social worker

8. Assist teachers and administrators in working with parents through: parent-teacher conferences; PTA meetings; and grade level meetings

9. Assist teachers and administrators in working with community agencies

10. Provide for on-the-job growth of the teaching staff in guidance skills

11. Provide opportunities for research to determine the effectiveness of the guidance program.

What Is the Teacher's Guidance Role?

The elementary classroom teacher is an extremely important guidance worker. This point is stressed in all of the literature on elementary school guidance. As a member of the school guidance team, the classroom teacher, according to *Guiding Today's Children:*[7]

1. Observes children's behavior in daily situations
2. Uses a variety of methods to study children individually and in groups
3. Takes part in a systematic program of standardized testing
4. Contributes to and uses cumulative records for each child
5. Refers children for special study and guidance conferences when help is needed
6. Recognizes children with exceptional needs and knows the special services provided for them
7. Meets with parents individually and in groups to understand children better and to involve parents in the education of their children
8. Evaluates the growth and learning of children and the effectiveness of the curriculum
9. Works with community personnel and agencies in providing for children's educational and social needs
10. Engages in professional growth activities to deepen his understanding of children.

What Is the Counselor's Role?

The responsibilities of the elementary school counselor are helpfully defined in an article by Robert N. Hart.[8] In his study, teachers ranked the importance of selected duties for the elementary counselor as is indicated in the following list:

1. Counseling pupils with learning, physical, social, and emotional problems
2. Interpreting pupil data to parents
3. Holding conferences with parents regarding any pupil problems
4. Interpreting pupil data to faculty members
5. Assisting in placement of pupils in proper classes or in special classes when needed
6. Acting as a liaison person between school and community agencies on pupil problems

7. Coordinating the efforts of all specialists working on a case

8. Acting as a guidance consultant on pupil problems to all staff members

9. Interpreting pupil data to authorized community agencies

10. Reporting to the principal annually on what has been accomplished in guidance.

What Is the School Psychologist's Role?

The duties of a school psychologist vary in particular systems and will be influenced by the availability of other specialists, by his professional acceptance by teachers and community, and by the expectations of the administrator and school board. One list of duties representative of many systems states that the school psychologist:

- "Informs school personnel and parents regarding the special services he is prepared to render
- "Accepts for study individuals referred to him by school personnel
- "Studies the problems and potentialities of individuals referred to him, formulates procedures to be followed in the case of individual studies, and provides or helps to secure the treatment needed
- "Confers with school personnel who are working with an individual studied regarding the results of the study, interprets his findings, recommends the treatment needed to correct the individual's difficulty, and suggests ways in which all can cooperate in giving the treatment
- "Keeps informed regarding the various services available in the community that can be used in helping individuals to solve their problems and is prepared to secure the particular services for the individual who needs them
- "Helps school personnel to understand the problems and needs that children commonly have at different age levels
- "Helps school personnel to understand the causes underlying various kinds of behavior and methods of helping each child to develop desirable behavior patterns
- "Helps members of the community to understand the causes underlying various kinds of behavior and to understand the intellectualness of children, youth, and adults
- "Promotes and engages in the research that is needed to help each child and youth to work successfully at a rate and at a level commensurate with his potentialities."[9]

What Is the School Social Worker's Role?

Like the school counselor and the school psychologist, the school social worker is an important member of the guidance team. His work has been described as follows:[10]

". . . School social work functions as a profession within the profession of education. It attempts to use unique social work skills on certain problems of children in school. This contribution reflects current philosophy of the elementary school that includes not only the transmitting of knowledge and skills but social adjustment as well.

"Such a goal is recognized when school personnel ask:

"1. How can we understand and modify attitudes of children, parents, and teachers that hinder a child's progress in school?

"2. How can we know more about the child when he comes to school?

"3. How can we help children who are unable to learn because of some emotional disturbance?

"4. How can we have a closer parent-school relationship?

"5. How can we help teachers help individual children in their classrooms?

"The school social worker can help in answering some of these questions because social case work functions as a helping process. Social case work promotes effective use of a meaningful relationship wherein mutual acceptance and growth take place. This process stimulates change toward a more satisfying level of experience."

How Can a Team Approach Be Developed?

The guidance committee approach to staff cooperation is worth considering.[11] Such a committee is an informal advisory group, interested in the study of problems, yet without administrative responsibility. As a "helping" group to teachers, it contributes to the study of children and encourages continuing professional growth. Guidance committees are most helpful if:

- The committee represents the varied competencies of the school staff
- Staff members volunteer because of interest
- Communication between the committee, the administration, and the entire staff is fostered
- The committee's responsibilities and progress toward its goals are periodically evaluated
- The committee is scheduled as an ongoing professional activity within the school.

Through the guidance committee, teachers, psychologist, nurse, principal, and supervisor serve as a team to consider mutual problems. They enjoy working together and, of course, grow individually. The committee fosters a guidance point of view which recognizes the complexity of human behavior and avoids ready-made formulas. The interrelations of all members of staff come into sharper focus, and individualized help is extended to more boys and girls.

On the basis of an analysis such as this, a school faculty can plan specific steps to improve the guidance program. A guidance committee might be set up to survey the guidance services being provided in the school, using as criteria the characteristics outlined earlier in this article. The committee might then identify the two or three greatest needs and report the findings to the faculty. Once the total staff has agreed on priorities, consultant help can be sought.

If special guidance personnel are not available, the principal might discuss with the superintendent the possibility of obtaining such help. In doing so, he might submit data regarding the costs of such services and the values derived from them. If it should prove impossible for the district to employ the specialist help needed, it might be possible for someone already employed in the school district to be reassigned, provided he has the confidence of the teachers and the needed credentials.

Whether or not guidance specialists are available, the faculty who recognize the importance of guidance services in the modern educational program can accomplish a substantial amount if they will carefully study the elements of a good guidance program and plan specific, year-by-year steps for improvement.

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THE CARE AND NURTURE OF SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGISTS

ARTHUR A. SEAGULL
AND MARY-CLARE BOROUGHS

IN an attempt to define their role, school psychologists have published extensively in the last ten years. One article that appeared during the past year by James N. Scheibe[1] described the school psychologist as clinician, coordinator, and consultant, all extensions of a traditional role. Another article, by Roger Reger,[2] called for a new look at school psychology, casting aside older clinical models and emphasizing the educational role.

However impressive many such contributions may be, the crucial issue is not so much what the psychologist wants to be as what the schools—the administrators, principals, and teachers—want from the school psychologist. The school psychologist can only be effective insofar as he meets the needs of those who have hired him.

Our impression is that schools do not always know what to do with their psychologists. This article is an attempt to define a wide range of the psychologist's potential assets and to describe some of the ways in which the school principal might best utilize the talents of the school psychologist.

Using the Skills of the School Psychologist

The traditional role of the school psychologist has been that of the psychometrist, the psychologist skilled in the administration of psychological tests which were usually confined to intellectual and educational assessment or extended into personality evaluation. In many states, the requirements for special class placement determined the work of the psychologist in the schools. Recently, both educators and psychologists have become increasingly unhappy with this role. Educators have complained (and no doubt rightly so) that many diagnostic efforts have not been fruitful, that recommendations have been barren or useless, that reports have been filled with unintelligible jargon. Some answers to this criticism have come in the shape of efforts to improve diagnostic measures, as well as methods of reporting and consultation. Other voices have suggested that the problem lies in a method that does not meet the major needs of the modern educational system: dealing with integration, increasing pupil-to-teacher ratios, meeting individual

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needs within the group context, and helping the teachers who begin to doubt their own competence in an age of reliance on "experts."

A related role of the school psychologist that has also met with considerable criticism involves individual therapy or long-term counseling with parents and children. Although certain clinically trained individuals in school districts with plentiful funds still maintain their right to this practice, others are moving away from it. Therapy demands extensive supervised training. Long-term therapy in the schools means time devoted to the treatment of a few individuals to the neglect sometimes of broader problems. A better solution would be to use the psychologist as a referral source to community agencies set up specifically to deal with long-term problems. In such a situation, after a child had undergone initial trial therapy and the need for long-term therapy had been established, the psychologist would act as a coordinator between the agency and the school. His role would be to work out mutually satisfactory goals and consistent methods of treatment that all adults in contact with the child could participate in. (Calling for a case conference is an excellent beginning.) Principals should be sure, though, that the psychologist who wants to do therapy within the school is qualified to do so. A call to a nearby university would be an easy way to check.

The principal should also be certain that the psychologist's therapeutic goals are consonant with the needs of his school; that is, a quick return to regular classroom control. In this respect, the principal can help the psychologist see that he can be more effective *with the child* if he spends his time helping the teacher to sort out his feelings and explore new approaches to classroom management, rather than providing direct service to the child.

A modern school psychologist may sometimes appear to encroach on the domain of other school personnel—curriculum experts, specialists of all kinds, school social workers, and so forth. Where needs are already met adequately by other trained personnel, the psychologist can turn to new areas where personnel are seeking better methods of dealing with their particular function. The psychologist with his special training in research skills could serve as a consultant to the existing services. The principal can help educate the psychologist by insisting that he familiarize himself with the contributions of the various services extant in the system.

Increasingly, school psychologists are emphasizing their role in planning and assessing educational programs. Psychologists have the training and the resources to undertake a review of the research literature on a new method or program. For example, a school which is proposing to move from graded to ungraded classes may wish to have the school psychologist review research literature before taking on such an extensive revision. The psychologist may unearth methods which would make the shift more effective. The school may also find it applicable to plan, with the help of the psychologist, an ongoing research test of the effectiveness of the new program.

Many related issues can benefit from the services of the psychologist: methods of grading, use of TV, ability grouping, reading instruction, teaching machines, to mention a few. The principal can help the psychologist by keeping him attuned to the reactions of teachers.

It is all too easy to be so pleased with a research study of the efficiency of one or more teaching approaches that the human reactions of the teachers being researched can be overlooked. If the researchers forget the *human element*, the research effort will absolutely fail. The principal's role then is a vital one. He does not have to be the expert in research. He is the expert in what will help and what will harm his school. He must work with the psychologist to make sure he has good research *and* happy teachers.

In addition to a more direct approach to educational procedures, psychologists are generally interested in mental health in the classroom and in promoting good adjustment in all areas for all children. To achieve this, a psychologist can work efficiently with several teachers through in-service teacher education. He can discuss, with small groups of teachers having related interests, such topics as child development, classroom management, and meeting the needs of the exceptional child in the classroom. Group meetings can lead to short- or long-term consultation about a specific child or class on an individual basis with a teacher just as effectively as can crisis situations.

Group testing is under fire. The school psychologist may be helpful in assessing the current group testing program in an individual school or throughout a system. He may have the skills which can lead to specialized testing or he may be able to lead individual teachers to more accurate assessment of a pupil's academic development as well as the teacher's methods of teaching. The principal should insist that teachers are part of the process at all stages. Otherwise the morale of the staff will suffer.

In this and in other areas, the school psychologist can prove an asset by interpreting school programs to parents and to the community at large. He may be able to explain psychological and educational innovations or ongoing programs through school group meetings, writing newspaper releases, leading a discussion, or serving on a panel at community-wide meetings.

Work with parents is both important and, at times, difficult. The school psychologist's assistance in group discussions with teachers could lead to more productive parent-teacher conferences. Out of such discussions and actions, parent group meetings might also develop, in which the leadership or the assistance of the psychologist would be relevant.

In addition to ongoing school programs, the school psychologist can assist the school by making recommendations for special programs within the school or in the community and by making referrals to such programs. He will work most effectively if he is in close contact with those who plan and implement special education programs of all kinds.

Improving the Relationship Between the School Psychologist and the School System

The relationship between the school psychologist and other school personnel has not always been a comfortable one. Misunderstandings frequently arise out of the inability of the psychologist and the principal to communicate freely and thus unify their goals.

The training and experience of the school psychologist is typically characterized by the encouragement of attitudes of self-direction and autonomy; on the other hand, school personnel such as the principal see themselves as a part of a total social system in which the roles and modes of communication are complex but structured. The school psychologist must learn the nature of this social system, as well as how he, with his unique skills, fits into it. A perceptive principal may be an invaluable aid to the psychologist by explaining the structure of a given school (for example, how decisions and communications really take place) as well as the structure of the larger system and even its relation to the community.

In addition to the aforementioned roles, the school psychologist generally holds a position at an administrative level. Because this position is not clearly set into the hierarchy, principals and teachers—especially teachers—may feel threatened by its presence. Both the principal and the teachers must be aware of status problems and face them squarely. The school personnel and the psychologist have something to teach one another. The skills are complementary. Unless a feeling exists that each member of the education team is equal, any joint effort will fail. The principal can help by making communication impediments explicit. For instance, at a teacher's meeting he might say, "I get the feeling that we are all a little in awe of you, Dr. __________. I wonder why that is?"

As the school psychologist becomes aware of the system within which he functions, he may also become aware of differences in goals. When the psychologist has had thorough clinical training, he has emphasized the individual in diagnosis and in one-to-one treatment. His repertoire may include insightful diagnostic conclusions and recommendations suitable to one-to-one implementation. But the classroom is a group with an educational goal. Consequently, the principal may have to assist the psychologist to expand his categories or shift his concerns to fit the wider school setting.

Those psychologists whose training centered more in educational psychology may prefer to concentrate less on the individual and his problems and more on the most recent applications of learning theory and research skills. Again the principal should be on hand to clarify any day-by-day demands of teaching and administration which could conflict at times with these goals. In such cases, if both the principal and the psychologist can communicate their goals, needs, and insights freely, the skills of the psychologist can be utilized to suit the needs of the situation.

Implicit in the preceding point is a further problem which may arise in the relationship between a given school psychologist and the system within which he works. Psychologists differ markedly, according to their training. Clinical psychologists have a background in personality development, individual diagnosis, and individual and/or group treatment. Educational psychologists are trained in the assessment of learning programs and in research techniques. A psychologist with a mixed background may have a smattering of both with a preference for one or the other. In solving this problem, two approaches are helpful. Once the interests and assets of the school psychologist have been identified, the principal may seek to: a) expand the resources of his school through fully utilizing the psychologist and/or b) clarify the needs of his school and arrange with his superintendent to get the psychologist the additional training that will enable him to meet those needs effectively. In other words, if the principal knows what he wants for his school and knows the ideal skills of a psychologist, he can insist that his psychologist receive any additional training needed.

The Principal and the School Psychologist

When the principal and the school psychologist begin to work together and before the issues of autonomous self-concept, fear of status, conflicting goals, and unknown assets have been resolved, the principal stands at a crossroad. As a busy educator with many responsibilities, he may be tempted to take the path of least resistance: to avoid communication in depth and to settle for confining the psychologist to limited contributions such as the familiar routines of intelligence tests and reports-in-triplicate. The psychologist, perhaps frightened by the complexity of his new position, may even settle gladly for such routine tasks. If the principal chooses this way out, it will be a loss to both the school and to the school psychologist.

The alternative and more rewarding course will make demands on both the principal and the school psychologist in terms of time, energy, imagination, and the capacity to risk exploring new approaches to education. The basic ingredient for all of these is the opportunity to talk through ideas and feelings. This does not mean that either principal or psychologist must know all the answers, but rather that they must exchange thoughts freely. They must assess the psychologist's skills, develop goals for both the school and the psychologist, a well as the program to achieve these goals.

When a school psychologist is assigned to a school, the principal will want first to determine with him what roles the psychologist feels qualified to fill at the start. This would best take place in a one-to-one conference in which both parties tentatively explore the school needs and the possible contributions of the psychologist. If the psychologist does not request such a conference, the principal should make the necessary overtures. Each year, they should set aside time for a continuation of this process.

Furthermore, the principal and his faculty might include the school psychologist in their plans for meeting current and future educational goals. To accomplish this end, they should include the school specialists at teachers' meetings before the opening of school and during the early school year. The principal could then direct the entire staff to examine their present program, to center on problems and needs, to offer suggestions to meet those needs, and even to "brainstorm" exciting new possibilities. At times, sub-groups of teachers with common interests may accomplish this task more effectively. One sub-group might include teachers dealing with a problem family. Another might consist of teachers of younger children focusing on the early assessment of children with potential learning problems. A committee might meet to raise questions about the current school testing program. The principal must train his staff to take advantage of the psychologist's skills without defensiveness. He must also train the psychologist to make his role explicit to teachers.

Ultimately, the principal must remain the final authority in his school. Only he knows the combination of pressures on him from the administration, the school, and the community. In the final analysis, the principal has the responsibility to implement or veto any suggested program and to make his authority and the reasons for his decisions clear to the psychologist. Usually, the psychologist has to be taught how to work within the hierarchical matrix of the educational system.

In furthering the school plan, the coordination of several services may be required. Frequently, the cooperation of two or more specialists will carry a plan to completion—a plan which would otherwise flounder. For example, the combined efforts of psychologist, classroom teachers, remedial teacher, and librarian can further programs for retarded readers. The principal sees the over-all picture of these services, knows the persons involved, and can best assist in initiating a combination of roles. *He need not know as much as the specialists.* However, he must know what he is working toward and the best people to utilize to achieve it.

The work of the school psychologist requires a place and time. The principal can pave the way for the best use of psychological skills through assistance in scheduling. Teachers often resent the use of the lunch hour and late afternoon, and consultations in the hall outside a buzzing classroom are rarely useful. "Time and place" require adjustment of classroom schedules. One solution is to release time for the teacher during the day by arranging a substitute. Optimal arrangements will assure positive feelings and effective contacts for those involved. It will also indicate, much better than repeated speeches, just how seriously the school believes in the importance of mental health and psychological services. Shunt a psychologist from office to office, make consultation time inconvenient or impossible, and you will have minimal use of the psychologist's training and skills.

Advantages and Disadvantages

When the principal is tempted to ask "What's in it for me?" both advantages and disadvantages come to mind. By planning new approaches and coordinating the efforts of a staff, the principal adds demands to his already crowded days. By taking action, he runs the risk of misunderstanding and opposition which may arise with the psychologist, faculty, and others in the school, not to mention with parents and the community. There are always those in any situation who are resistant to change even with the best of public relations. A commitment to open communication is sometimes anxiety provoking. If you really feel that people should say what they think, they might do just that!

The superficiality and pace of our way of life make the process that has been described here—with the trust and freedom implied—a slow and sometimes tedious one. False starts and discouraging barriers often meet initial efforts. Early enthusiasms must give way then to more reasonable approximations to the final goals. Reassessment of goals in the light of progress and changing circumstances can produce results that continue to be relevant. To stay with a plan, the principal will need to be deeply committed to the broader goals he has established. No goal can be achieved all at once. Program goals should reasonably approximate the final goal. Applaud your first year's achievements and then raise your sights. Don't set goals for the first year that are reasonable only after five years. You will achieve only frustration rather than legitimate pride.

Commitment comes through belief in the benefits that can accrue. As an educational leader, the principal cannot expect to keep up with the modern educational scene single-handed. The school psychologist is one expert who can help. With the school psychologist and other specialists, the principal will become the leader he seeks to be through providing more advantages to the teachers and children in his school. This leadership will also have the added zest that new programs and new interests give to life, as well as the satisfaction of a job well done.

FOOTNOTES

1. Scheibe, James N. "The School Psychologist: Clinician, Coordinator, Consultant." *National Elementary Principal* 45: 43-44, 49-51; September 1965.

2. Reger, Roger. "School Psychology: An Emerging Profession." *National Elementary Principal* 45: 52-54; January 1966.

WHOM DO YOU HIRE?

THE REVEREND CANON DOUGLAS S. MACDONALD

YOU are an elementary school principal who has been authorized to select a guidance counselor for your school. How do you go about it? What do you look for in a guidance counselor for an elementary school? What education and background should he have? What sort of person should he be?

You should expect an elementary school guidance counselor to work in five areas:

1. Testing
2. Working with teachers and assisting with the adaptation of the curriculum to the needs of the children
3. Working with parents
4. Counseling pupils both individually and in groups
5. Providing information about the world of work.

Testing. Since the elementary school testing program falls within the scope of the guidance program, the counselor must have a working knowledge of group testing. As a basic minimum, he certainly should have had at least one course in this area. He should be able to administer, score, and interpret achievement, intelligence, and aptitude tests as well as personality inventories. It is true that undesirable consequences can result from overzealousness in testing, inasmuch as the results are at times inadequate and too often yield information which is already known. Nevertheless the testing of elementary school children still serves a useful function, provided it is kept in perspective.

Preferably, the elementary school counselor should also have skills in the interpretation of projective techniques and in individual testing. This is not an absolute necessity, but it is highly desirable under certain conditions. For example, it can be of invaluable assistance in the proper referral for specialized help or treatment. In addition, the counselor should have a broad and working knowledge of various services that are available in the community. He should acquire this information as soon after he is employed as possible.

Adapting the curriculum. A third vital area in the guidance program is counselor cooperation with teachers in adapting the curriculum to the needs of the children. It is imperative that the new guidance

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counselor be a certified elementary school teacher. Having had experience in teaching on the elementary school level, he is better able to understand the needs and problems of teachers with whom he is working. By having shared in the teaching experience, he is also more likely to receive respect and cooperation from other members of the faculty. Although it is necessary for the elementary school counselor to have had more experience than simply his practice teaching, *many* years of elementary school teaching experience will not necessarily predicate productive or enlightening experience; indeed, it might even be detrimental to his outlook in his capacity as a guidance counselor.

No matter how perceptive a counselor may be about the personal needs of children, he must also have a fundamental and working knowledge of the elementary school curriculum. The difficulties that teacher and pupil face in beginning phonics are simply not the same as those they face in calculus or chemistry. A thorough knowledge of an elementary school curriculum and actual practice in teaching are prerequisites for the elementary school guidance counselor.

Working with parents. To be effective, the elementary school guidance counselor must be able to relate understandingly and meaningfully to parents. He will find little formalized instruction to prepare him to work in this sensitive area other than perhaps a general background of courses in principles and techniques of guidance and basic courses in psychology and sociology. In this area of working with parents, the personality of the prospective counselor is of utmost importance. He must present a pleasing appearance and have an accepting and attractive personality. He must have the patience of Job and the wisdom of Solomon. As an elementary school principal who has been working with parents for years, you realize the importance of maintaining relationships with them. Throughout your school you realize the tremendous importance of the school and home working together as a team for the benefit of the child. Nowhere is this more important than in the guidance program. The prospective counselor's college and graduate school transcripts may yield little information of a practical nature in this area of guidance. Your own work background in this area will serve as a guide in evaluating the personality of the prospective guidance counselor.

Counseling pupils. Probably the most vital area of all in which the elementary school counselor will work is in face-to-face counseling. Ideally, a one-to-one counseling relationship would probably be the most desirable. Yet, such a procedure—for practical purposes—is unrealistic for most schools. Nevertheless, as the concept of guidance in the elementary school has evolved and has become more important, we have come to realize that many of the difficulties students experience in their high school and college years germinated during early childhood. The counselor, who works closely with teachers and parents, should have the ability to anticipate and detect difficulties in individual children and thus be equipped to work with as many children on a one-to-one basis as possible.

Ideally, three specific experience areas should appear on the prospective counselor's transcript, although the principal seldom finds them inasmuch as they are so rarely offered in college and university educational curriculums. The elementary school counselor should have practicums in individual counseling, group counseling, and play therapy on an elementary school level. It is a sad commentary on higher education in our country today that thorough and sophisticated preparation in these areas on the elementary level is so seldom provided. Theoretical courses have proliferated, but only a token of practical learning work experiences is available. Yet, practice in these areas is absolutely essential.

Counseling is the life blood of the educational process, not merely an appendage to it. The counselor must have the educational background to counsel at the elementary level. The techniques that he may have acquired in counseling with adults will be of little value to him in his counseling techniques with children. He cannot expect elementary school children to verbalize and comprehend as adults do in counseling. If counseling is to be the most important part of the guidance program, the principal must find a counselor who has a working knowledge of play therapy. It is through this method of counseling that the counselor will probably be most effective as he seeks to assist students in their adjustment.

Occupational information. The area of occupational information was once thought to be the exclusive domain of the secondary school counselor. He was armed with boxes overflowing with pamphlets, books, and brochures. He was also the unique majordomo of a three-ring circus, generally referred to as "Career Day." On the other hand, all too often occupational information in the elementary school has been concerned primarily with cute little books, used in the early grades, which tell about the pleasures of being a policeman, a fireman, or a milkman. The task is no longer that simple. A solid, pervasive program of exposing children to the ethic of work and to the prerequisites, demands, and rewards of various occupations is a must in the contemporary elementary school. We can see a new emphasis upon the choosing of a vocation in the development of the self-concept of the child and the specific vocational choice as the implementation of that self-concept. For this reason, the elementary school counselor should have had a background course dealing with occupational and educational information on the elementary school level.

This has been a check list of what to look for in new elementary school guidance counselors. If a person can be found with the background, education, and skills herein described, the educational and mental health climate of the school will be significantly enhanced. This can be a tremendous help to the principal, the teachers, the students and their parents. Investment in counseling services of this kind should yield dividends of immeasurable benefit for years to come.

GUIDANCE POINTERS FROM GUIDANCE SPECIALISTS

GORDON L. HOUGH

LOCATED in Spring Valley, New York, Lakeside School is a residential institution operated by Edwin Gould Services for Children.[1] It offers year-round care to more than 140 boys and girls unable, for psychological reasons, to live in their own homes. The campus includes a nongraded, public elementary school. The faculty of this school works closely with caseworkers and other staff members of the institution.

The school's aim is to provide a full range of services in a program that is carefully designed to help a child attain his full potential of intellectual, emotional, and physical development. It seeks to accomplish this through the combined use of group living, casework, guidance work, psychological services, and teaching.

The school's faculty and the Lakeside staff face special challenges in helping children whose residence and school attendance may vary from a few months to a period of years. This range requires exceptional flexibility in curriculum management and great adaptability on the part of the teaching and institutional staffs.

The following interview took place with Miss Ruth Girardi and Mrs. Marjorie Markham. Miss Girardi is Coordinator of Children's Services and is in charge of Lakeside's institutional staff working directly with the children. Mrs. Markham is Guidance Counselor for the Lakeside School.

Q. Tell me, Miss Girardi, what pointers can you pass along to elementary school teachers on how to get to know and to work with children who are troubled and have special problems?

A. Remember, now, my training is in casework, so what I have

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[1] Edwin Gould Foundation for Children was chartered in 1923 by the New York State Legislature for the purpose of promoting the welfare of children throughout the United States. Previously, its founder, Edwin Gould, a son of Jay Gould, had contributed liberally to private institutions for the support of dependent and neglected children.

In 1939, the Edwin Gould New York Fund (now called Edwin Gould Services for Children) was created to carry out the varied programs of the Foundation. Today, it serves over 650 dependent and neglected children in foster families, group homes, and in an institution, Lakeside School, in Spring Valley, New York. A special educational program, designed for deprived children, is conducted in Lakeside's own elementary school, a unit of the New York State Department of Education. A nature center serves the children of the community as well as those living at Lakeside.

The Edwin Gould Foundation, while supporting the operations of the Edwin Gould Services for Children, is becoming increasingly concerned with program planning and development in social services and education. A growing Foundation scholarship program gives assistance to 70 students in vocational institutions and colleges.

to say reflects this experience. I always think of what a high school teacher in Spring Valley says about our elementary school graduates who come to his school. He feels they're really no different from the children in surrounding communities. They do, however, have a common denominator in that they all shoulder some sort of family problem. But then, so do many children who live at home. Here at Lakeside we set standards for our students which we expect them to attain. In this way, by defining boundaries, we help them feel they are no different from other students elsewhere. Through such a process, they begin to develop a feeling of inner worth and experience ego-building.

I suppose one tip I'd pass along is the value of the team approach. For those of us at Lakeside, this means that the teacher, caseworker, and other professionals on our staff all contribute to the care and education of our children. Other team members here include the director, house parents, supervising principal, psychiatrist, and guidance counselor.

Even if the team in your school consists of just the principal and the teacher, I think such a cooperative effort is still valuable. Many schools now have a psychologist, at least on call, and he is certainly part of your team. And don't forget to bring in the parents, too. In this way, you can all exchange observations and recommendations. Then, I think it's important to refer the child and his parents to the appropriate community agency—for instance, a health or family service clinic—when this is indicated. This is especially important if your school has no trained social worker. As a caseworker myself, I'm pleased that more and more schools are availing themselves of this specialized service. Finally, don't forget the remedial services offered right in your school—special work in reading, arithmetic, and so forth.

Q. You mentioned enlisting the parent in a team approach to a child's problem. What specific suggestions have you for parents? What are some things they can do to help?

A. A parent, a teacher, and a caseworker, too, should all be good listeners. If you listen carefully, you hear and learn a great deal. Ideally, a parent should be at home when a child returns from school in the afternoon. This way the child realizes that the parent is his alone for a short time, even if it's only five minutes.

You can learn a lot from a child's conversation. Watch for things he wants to talk about, pick up the clues, and let him lead the conversation whenever possible. Don't push questions at him. His silence can be revealing, too; overemphasis on one area makes you wonder about the things he's leaving out. Besides listening, there are other ways we can learn what's on a child's mind. Many teachers ask their students to write autobiographies or themes on "What I'd Like to Be" or "What Particular Person I'd Like to Be." Our teachers at Lakeside are alert to share with caseworkers this kind of material which contributes to an understanding of the child.

Q. How would you describe the caseworker's role at your elementary school?

A. The caseworker's task here is to work with the teacher to provide the support a child should ordinarily have at home. Without this backing, it is difficult for him to solve his personal problems, establish his own identity, and assume his proper place in the world.

Q. What is one way of helping him to establish his identity?

A. Judicious use of praise is an important method. A child can feel very low at times. If you can find something he does well, praise him honestly. But don't praise if you can't be sincere about it.

I suppose I'd advise giving every child a specific responsibility, some assignment so that he can feel he's contributing something. It doesn't matter how trivial the assignment may seem; it builds his ego, and this is very important. I remember one child here who had a very low opinion of herself. It wasn't until we gave her the job of folding paper napkins for the dining room tables that she felt there was anything she did well. This was a small matter. However, we praised her for it and it seemed to do wonders for her spirits.

Q. I suppose you are constantly experimenting with new methods and new approaches.

A. Oh, certainly! We don't have all the answers by any means. However, I would say our caseworkers and teachers both believe in the value of a person-to-person relationship with our children. Through this, we try to help a child attain some inner stability and control of himself which he must have in order to do good work in school. We try to help him adjust here to prepare him for the wider community in which he will live, and in which we hope he will live as a happy person.

Q. Mrs. Markham, as guidance counselor in a nongraded elementary school for children in need of institutional care, can you tell me something of your routine? For example, how and when do you meet with a new student?

A. Unless placement is an emergency, the supervising principal and I have an opportunity to meet a new student on a pre-placement visit. At that time, we get an idea of the student's reactions to school in general and have an opportunity to observe such things as his maturity, personality, and social adjustment.

Since the student may not come to Lakeside, this first meeting is brief and observations are naturally very general. We try to help him accept the possibility of change by showing him the many enjoyable aspects of life at Lakeside—the gym, the shop, the art room, the nature center, and our wonderful science lab, as well as our pleasant classrooms and teachers. All of these help the child look forward to coming here to live.

After the child is accepted and before he actually arrives at Lakeside, the caseworker prepares a brief case study, which is sent to the school principal and then to me. By understanding the needs of the child, we are able to make a more satisfactory first placement for him in our school program. Each child has his own individual needs—educational, social, and physical—which the school can help meet. For instance, we have a new student who will be arriving next week. He is 13 years old and in the fifth grade. There are three possible rooms where he might receive the level of instruction that he needs right now. We are helped in selecting the best classroom for him by knowing whether he is an immature 13-year-old, whether he would benefit most from contact with a male or female teacher, or whether he is aggressive in his behavior.

In addition to considering the needs of the new student, we must also keep in mind the rights of the other children with whom he will be in daily contact. By working closely with the caseworker and the teacher, we can be more certain that the initial placement will be satisfactory.

Q. What about your first meeting with the new student?

A. We know he will be somewhat apprehensive when he arrives. We hope, though, that through friendly understanding we can establish a comfortable relationship with him. We usually visit the school together, and he may meet several of the teachers. If there is a ball game, we stop and watch that for a few minutes. By this time we know which cottage he will live in. During our stroll around the building, we introduce him to various students, taking care to include some he might be in class with and who would be cottage mates. We stop for a visit with his prospective teacher, and the boy might look around at some of the work on the bulletin board and chalk board as well as at the abundance of reading material in the library and classrooms.

Later, in my office, we chat about school in general and I try to find out what subjects he enjoys and what his strengths and weaknesses are. I try to get an idea of his feelings about school. I explain our nongraded system and the opportunity it gives him to move ahead as fast as he is able. I also tell him something of the rules and what is expected of him as a citizen of the school. We usually discuss his record of achievement from his other school, and I give him a chance to say whether he feels his grades represent his actual achievement. Then I tell him what my job is and assure him that I hope he will come to see me often. My office is right between two classrooms so it is easy to get here.

After this visit with the new student, I fill out a form for the principal, giving my impressions and recommendations. The principal comments on them, makes changes if he wishes, and sends the recommendation on to the boy's new teacher.

From that point on, each case is different. I see some students a good deal more often than others. I always stop to chat with a new student when I see him around the building. The caseworker, cottage parent, principal, and other staff members who come in contact with him watch his adjustment and make such changes as seem necessary.

Q. Do you give tests?

A. Yes, we have a regular testing program. Usually in October we give achievement tests to all of the elementary school students. We also give the Differential Aptitude Tests to students working at the eighth-grade level. These are very helpful in guiding our eighth graders into high school programs where they are more likely to succeed. We re-test achievement in the spring when the need is indicated. We also give mental ability tests. Since new students arrive throughout the year, we give group tests when they are necessary. If we feel a group test would be unreliable, we give individual tests.

Q. Do you discuss the reports of these tests with the children?

A. Oh, yes, whenever the student wants to. Each child is invited to my office to discuss how he is doing and ways he can improve himself. No one is forced to do this. Most do come. It is interesting to note the amount of interest the average child has in how he is getting along.

We present the results of the tests as carefully as possible to the child so he will feel encouraged rather than discouraged. If a student shows interest, I try to point out ways of improving his study habits and I show him self-help material which he may use if he is interested.

During these individual conferences on school achievement, a student often reveals certain feelings and anxieties that I later discuss with the teacher, the principal, and the caseworker. The cottage parents also show an interest in their children's school problems and this information is shared with them. At a meeting with teachers and caseworkers, test results are shared with all staff members. We then discuss individual cases and devise ways to help a student in need.

Q. What staff meetings do you attend?

A. The supervising principal of the school presides at a weekly conference of teachers and caseworkers which I attend. Here, general educational and behavioral problems are discussed, as well as individual cases. In addition, three times each week, the caseworkers get together with their supervisor to discuss the all-around development of the child. Sometimes I attend child care meetings. We also have case conferences around an individual child.

Our entire program is designed to utilize the skills of every staff member. Our children come with many problems and many needs. By using the team approach, we try to give each child the maximum amount of help in his effort to grow and to develop.

THE DISTURBED CHILD IN THE REGULAR CLASSROOM

EVETTE JOYCE ZELLS

THE disturbed child is often not easy to recognize. He is not always the child who displays gross deviant and antisocial behavior patterns. He may be the very quiet child in the corner who has never once been a discipline problem. Often he is, or he appears to be, quiet, shy, a "slow learner."

Identifying the Disturbed Child

How can a teacher identify a disturbed child? What behavior should make him suspect a child needs help? Eli Bower, Consultant, National Institute of Mental Health,[1] has defined the disturbed child as "one who demonstrates one or more of the following characteristics *to a marked extent and over a period of time.*"

- "An inability to learn, which cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory, or health factors." This child usually sticks out like a sore thumb. He resists learning, although his IQ tests show average or above-average abilities and his physical condition is normal.
- "An inability to build or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers." This would include lack of warmth or compassion for others, the absence of close friends, and the inability to enjoy working and playing with other children.
- "Inappropriate types of behavior or feelings under normal conditions." An example might be a child who laughs uncontrollably at something the rest of the class finds only mildly amusing.
- "A general, pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression." This may be detected in a child's performance in various creative areas, such as dramatics, written composition, art work, and choice of means of expression.
- "A tendency to develop physical symptoms, pains that appear to have no physical basis, and expression of fears associated with personal or school problems." This is the child who will get violently ill just before a test, or be completely unable to talk in front of the class.

Editor's note:

Although this article is directed to the classroom teacher, its importance for both *principals and teachers is apparent. The principal may want to pass the article along to teachers or use it as the basis for faculty discussion—or both.*

At the time this article was written, Evette Joyce Zells was Director of Curriculum and Training, Wright School, Re-Education Center, Durham, North Carolina.

In the everyday life of the classroom, you, as a teacher, will become aware that a child is manifesting behavior day after day of the type mentioned above. In such cases, it is best to begin an anecdotal record. Each entry in the anecdotal records should be simply a brief, to the point, written account of the deviant behavior you are witnessing. Each entry should be dated. A typical entry might be:

March 1, 1968

Johnny became enraged when the picture he was painting did not come out the way he had planned. He tore the paper into shreds and began throwing the paint bottles around the room. I had to physically restrain him in order to stop him. I took him out of the room and calmed him, which took a full ten minutes. Finally, he was able to return to the room. This incident is very much like the one I noted in the record for February 26, 1968.

Your personal thoughts as to what is troubling the child should *not* enter into an anecdotal record. All that you will need is a description of what has taken place; this will help in keeping entries brief.

At the time you begin keeping the anecdotal record, review the child's cumulative file and past anecdotal file (if one exists). Look for information that will give you a more complete picture of the child. Check other teachers' comments for notes regarding past behavior of a deviant nature. Determine if the child is exhibiting a drastic and sudden behavior change.

Information regarding the child's home situation will be particularly helpful. Has there been a recent change in the family's life (divorce, new baby, and so forth)? What does the child's health record show? Are there physical factors (mild epilepsy, low blood pressure, thyroid condition, or other ailments) of which you are unaware that may be relevant to his behavior?

Often a review of the records will provide little helpful new information. Unfortunately, few teachers take the time to make anecdotal or other psychological records for the files. In such a case, *your* anecdotal record becomes even more important. The agency to which the child is finally referred will need as much detailed and precise information on the child's current behavior as it is possible to provide.

After you think you have detected a disturbed child, refer the problem to your supervisor or principal. He is aware of the services available to the school and, after discussion with you, he will be able to make a decision as to the best course of action. It is important that you have sufficient pertinent data to justify your statement that "the child has a problem." With the anecdotal record of your observations in hand, you will be able to substantiate your referral. Without detailed data, the picture presented will be unclear.

After talking with the principal, your role in the referral procedure should be at an end. It is up to the school administration to follow through with the parents of the child and the supportive agencies[2] in the community. It is very important, however, that you continue your anecdotal records and keep the administration posted concerning the child's behavior in the classroom.

Handling the Disturbed Child in the Classroom

How do you handle the child while his referral is in progress? It is not easy to respond positively to a pupil who often disrupts your classroom and makes teaching a near impossibility. However, in order to be effective with the child, you must above all accept him for what he is. He will not change overnight and in the morning he will still be there, seated at his desk, waiting. Accept the fact that he has a problem and that he will therefore require some extra time and attention. Show him, through your attitude, that you do care about him. Of course, you cannot give him constant attention or allow him to become the most important element in your classroom.

There are several procedures that have been found effective in handling the emotionally disturbed child in the regular classroom.

- Begin by arranging your seating so that he is in a spot easily visible and accessible to you. Try not to make this arrangement obvious to the other pupils. Change his seat without drawing attention to the fact that he is "special."
- Structure his activities. This is of the utmost importance. Schedule his time in school tightly. Make sure he knows what he is to do throughout the day. Establish clear-cut goals for him; take his academic and emotional limits into account and let them serve as guides for your planning. Disturbed children will often function best in a highly organized classroom environment. In addition, a pre-planned program will provide you with a basis on which to judge his behavior. When and where does he operate best? What situations seem to disturb him most?
- Establish clear-cut limits of behavior for the child; make him fully aware that the limits exist, and make sure he understands the consequences of going beyond them. For example, if you know that Johnny often shouts out in class, explain that you cannot accept this behavior because it disturbs the other pupils. Tell him that if he continues to do this he will lose a privilege. Be specific in naming the privilege that will be taken away. Make absolutely certain the child understands. Then follow through *consistently:* when he acts out, remove the privilege. This may sound harsh, but you have an entire classroom to consider and you must be able to maintain control.

Try to encourage the child to develop positive relationships with his peers. One way to do this is through small group activities such as having him serve on committees or work with groups on specific projects.

- Finally, be realistic. You are not a psychiatrist. Your time and training enable you to do only so much. You cannot provide the child with intensive therapy, but you can try to work out a program that will allow him to function in the classroom situation as well as he can.

Every teacher should be prepared to handle a crisis situation. However, as a teacher with an emotionally disturbed child in your classroom, you should be constantly on the alert for a crisis occurrence. If prepared, you can often intervene and control the situation before it becomes acute.

There is no such thing as a "typical" crisis: a child may shout, throw things around the room, or attack another pupil. Nevertheless, several basic procedures should be implemented in any crisis situation.

When a child loses control of himself in the classroom, remember that the safety (physical and emotional) of *all* your pupils comes first. Remove the child from the group if possible. If not, have the rest of the pupils leave the room. Get a nearby teacher or supervisor to watch your class. Stay with the child you have isolated. He will usually need help to regain control of himself, and your presence will show him that you are rejecting not the child himself but only his *behavior.*

Attempt to give the child "emotional first-aid" to help him get over the immediate crisis. Use an approach similar to the Life-Space Interview,[3] a technique now being used in the treatment of disturbed children. Begin by trying to calm down the child with soothing words or, in the case of a small child, by holding him. Then ask him to attempt to tell you how he feels, to verbalize the emotions he is experiencing at the moment. By talking about his feelings, he will usually be able to regain control. Do not attempt to uncover the psychological motivations for his behavior. Instead, discuss more acceptable ways in which he might have expressed his feelings. For example, you might say, "Don't you think it would have been better to come up and tell me you were angry and see if we could have worked out the problem together?" In rare instances, you may be unable to do anything which will calm the child. Stay with him until his emotion has spent itself and then talk about his feelings.

The crisis incident will have unsettled your pupils, and you must prepare them for the individual's return to the classroom. Avoid trying to pretend that "nothing has happened." Instead, briefly discuss what has occurred, answer questions, and get the class back to work quickly. Then let the child rejoin his classmates with as little attention drawn to him as possible. By following these procedures—staying with the child, talking about his emotions, and preparing the class for his return—you will help to lessen the child's feelings of anxiety and guilt that are sure to accompany such an incident. As soon as you can, make a note of what has happened for your anecdotal record.

Because a teacher's own conduct and demeanor during a crisis are also important, it is vital that you remain calm. You are the model in your classroom, and the children will react in much the same manner as you do. You must keep control of the situation or it will control you and your entire class. If you are flustered, try not to let the children see it.

Act quickly and with assurance. Do not deliberate over what steps to take while the crisis grows. Give clear instructions to the class ("file out of the room," "go on with your work," and so forth). Then isolate the child who is creating the disturbance. Handle the disturbed child as you think best. Try not to worry about making a mistake. In all likelihood you will know the child well enough to be able to sense the best way to help him respond.

It is almost inevitable that you will someday encounter a disturbed child in your classroom. By identifying him and setting the referral process[4] in motion, you have only begun. By arranging his classroom schedule realistically and by seeing him through crises as they occur, you can start him on the path that will ultimately, after treatment, return him to the school as a normally functioning child.

Footnotes

1. Bower, Eli M. *Early Identification of Emotionally Handicapped Children in School.* Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, 1960.

2. The school may employ a wide range of supportive services to serve the child and his family. Ideally, these should include local special education departments; municipal or county courts, county mental health departments, county health departments; state mental health facilities, state family service agencies, religious welfare organizations, and other private welfare organizations.

3. The Life-Space Interview is a useful technique for teachers to know, not only for coping with a disturbed child but also for helping any pupil who has a problem. A complete discussion can be found in *Conflict in the Classroom,* edited by William Morse, Ruth Newman, and Nicholas Long, Wadsworth Publishing Company, Belmont, California, 1965.

4. In a majority of cases, treatment by a range of special services for disturbed children within the realm of the school is the answer. There are those students, however, whose needs cannot be met in a public school setting even with a full complement of services. When a child's problem is recognized as being too involved and severe to be dealt with by the school and/or the special education services provided by the school, referral to an appropriate agency should be instituted.

The role of these agencies should be threefold:

- Recognition of the school as a prime screening instrument for children and families in the community who are having serious emotional difficulties
- Sensitivity to the needs of the school insofar as problems in the mental health area are concerned
- Providing services to the school such as: qualified personnel for in-service training, treatment for children and families with problems too complex to be handled by the school, open lines of communication between agencies and the school.

GUIDANCE PRACTICE FOR TEACHING THE DISADVANTAGED

ALLAN C. ORNSTEIN

CERTAIN recent educational literature has implied that the problems of the disadvantaged cannot be solved by the teacher alone. This is true. However, because of high pupil-counselor ratios, a school counselor or psychologist comes into contact with most students for only a short time. Since a child's problem cannot be solved in a few days, regardless of how expert the help is, the most important adult in school is the classroom teacher. The child spends more time with him than with anyone else. Thus, even under unfavorable slum conditions, the full and active support of a guidance-oriented teacher sometimes means the difference between success and failure for a child, between gain and loss for society.

This article is divided into three parts. First, it examines the prerequisites for guidance of the disadvantaged student. Second, it examines a framework for teachers of the disadvantaged to function within so that they are able to provide good classroom mental health. Finally, it examines how the teacher can help the disadvantaged child adjust to school and society.

A Prerequisite for Effective Guidance of the Disadvantaged

The teacher of the disadvantaged need not be trained to the same degree that the professional counselor is trained. It is far more important that he possess common sense (something he cannot learn from books), excellent training for working well with such children, or a number of years' experience in teaching disadvantaged children. This background will provide him with the understanding that he needs to develop good mental health in the classroom.

An effective teacher of the disadvantaged is sensitive to and aware of the slum conditions that contribute to the behavior of these children. He has a working knowledge of the values inherent in their subculture as they relate to his own subject area. He recognizes the children's limitations. Yet, he also keeps in mind that they have an almost unlimited capacity for work when they are interested. As a result, this teacher sets up "safety measures" for relieving classroom tensions and maintaining good rapport. He allows a measure of freedom from restraint; at the same time, he establishes *limits* of acceptable behavior.

The teacher of the disadvantaged must have faith and an intense

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interest in these children. He must genuinely like them, including the emotionally disturbed and difficult members of the class. Otherwise, he will give up and reject them. Many times a teacher's frustration is related to his inability to accept the realities of slum conditions that cause the children to act as they do. The more the teacher understands himself and the dynamics of group behavior and slum conditions, the more likely he is to view the behavior of his students with objectivity. Indeed, he should be aware of his own sources of tension and anxiety so that they are not carried over into the classroom. He must also realize that sometimes these children need to hate him, that they express anger and frustration easily. Instead of reacting to a child's misbehavior personally, he needs to maintain an objective viewpoint and distinguish between the child and his behavior, rejecting the misbehavior without rejecting the child.

The teacher who respects and accepts these children as they are, *not* as he wishes they were, provides the kind of guidance that is needed. He offers his friendship. He appraises the feelings of children. Most disadvantaged children are extremely defensive and are accustomed to being rejected—sometimes even by their parents or guardian. They are not accustomed to having an adult as a friend. Yet, they will enthusiastically welcome such a relationship once their initial apprehensions are proved groundless. Respect and mutual trust will then develop—qualities that are essential for maintaining good classroom management and mental health, as well as for helping the child with his problems. Once respect and mutual trust have grown, the child will look to the teacher for advice and will recognize him as a person of experience and understanding.

Guidance and Mental Health in the Classroom

Too often a teacher creates a discipline problem by condemning a student before he tries to find the cause of the student's actions. This does not mean the teacher should condone the behavior in question. Instead, he should use the child's actions as a point of departure for creating understanding. An aggressive student usually needs a friend, not a lecture. His misconduct—whether verbal or physical—is usually the only way he can reveal that he needs help. Too often a teacher punishes a child for aggressiveness when what he needs is help. The teacher should distinguish between aggression that originates from immediate frustration and aggression that reflects hardened anger and contempt. The first type of aggression can be handled by channelling the child's energies into more challenging and interesting activities. The second kind requires a firmer approach, with suitable rules and routine. For either situation, it is advisable that the teacher first try being a friend. The child's parents probably gave up on him, and so most likely did many of the other teachers. The teacher should try to understand the child and help him see his problems as well as the problems he is creating for his classmates.

The causes of aggression can be many: failure to understand the subject matter or to see the purpose in going to school, being asked to do something beyond one's capacity, personality conflicts between the teacher and the child, and so forth. If the teacher recognizes the child's major reason for noncooperation, teacher and student can work together, not against each other. No matter what the problem is, however, the teacher should be able to handle any exhibition of raw emotion when it arises. He should help these children cope with and transfer their extensive frustration and anger into constructive purposes.

Though most disadvantaged children are well adjusted, they may pose certain problems. Generally, they will not remember their contributions to events, unless reminded as soon as possible. Therefore, all disciplinary action should be taken immediately after the incident. Disadvantaged children also have a tendency to become excited and disorderly in groups. Since this behavior is infectious and can disrupt the entire class, the teacher should immediately calm the upset and provoked child or separate him from the group.

Many disadvantaged children do not take care of their possessions. They lose, destroy, misplace, and deface their school supplies and their personal belongings. Often they steal and hide things from each other—sometimes to obtain one of the many things they are denied or sometimes just for plain delight. The teacher should remind students that they are responsible for their actions, and that they must look after their own belongings as well as any items the school lends them. The group must be encouraged to work together, not against each other. Any theft or defacing of property must be accounted for, even if it means having to call a principal or supervisor. This will stop a potentially intolerable condition, which can easily deteriorate if it is not checked.

Disadvantaged children are not accustomed to success within the larger society. As a consequence, when they do succeed, many cannot cope with it. Some do not know what to do; some become aggressive; some become boisterous. Others will goad a less successful student into copying them. Unless instantly curtailed, this behavior will result in a verbal or physical confrontation. The teacher is required to be swift and capable of acting as a judge. He should not ignore the students' clash of interests or their daring one another, which they call "wolfing." These youngsters need the teacher's advice. If the teacher is fair, they will appreciate it, even though they will not readily admit it.

On the other hand, disadvantaged children are astute appraisers and knowing manipulators of their environment. Sometimes they are delinquent, not because they cannot help themselves, but because they are doing their best to apply their skills toward the wrong goals. Many know just when to stop before it becomes unsafe or before the teacher gets angry. When they are caught—or as they call it "snagged"—they may fake or try to "con" their way out. Instead of feeling guilty, they feel people expect them to act as they do. Lectures usually do not work with them. They have a subtle and covert system of excuses which the teacher should recognize and differentiate. For example, they are apt to say "Who, me?" "What did you say?" "I didn't do it." "Why do you pick on me?"

If good judgment is used, the teacher can avoid many behavioral problems he might otherwise experience with these youngsters. However, there are no basic rules. The teacher must use his own judgment as a guide. He must use the right approach at the right time with the right child. Without stopping the lesson, he can be effective by using a nod of the head or a stern glance. By moving about the room and coming in close proximity to a student who is about to break the rules of the class, he may successfully alert the student and bring him back to the proper fold. Often the teacher can put his arm around the shoulder of a student and get his point across. But he should know whom he can touch and whom he cannot. For instance, he should never touch a student he does not know; nor should he get close to a student who dislikes him or with whom he has little rapport, or one who is tense and sensitive about being touched.

When a child threatens another student, the teacher should talk or "kid him down." In such a situation, the child needs a face-saving way out. If one student verbally harasses another student, the teacher should not get upset or make an issue of the situation. An apology is sufficient. Most of these children are continually exposed to abusive language. They cannot help themselves when they are excited. On the other hand, if a child tries to provoke the teacher by accompanying his bad conduct with threats or insults, the teacher should ignore the vexing implications. He should *not* create an audience situation; it will only make matters worse. He most certainly should not aggravate the situation by getting the child worked up to the point where he cannot help himself. In fact, most violent outbursts occur when children try to preserve their dignity. The teacher should calm the student down and take direct action. He must be certain the class is aware that the child was dealt with. Otherwise, this type of behavior is contagious if allowed to go unchecked. Also, he must make it clear to the child that he is not rejecting him, but that he is rejecting his behavior and that he demands more respect.

Sometimes, though the effort is sincere and the approach is sympathetic, the teacher still fails, through no fault of his own, to help the child. Frequently, such a child has been advised on previous occasions by numerous counselors, social workers, perhaps even judges. He is apt to take the teacher's advice simply as more preaching. He may want only to be left alone by the teacher, whom he is apt to regard as a "cop" who keeps him in a different kind of jail. Thus, the well-intentioned teacher is greeted with what to him is unwarranted cynicism by a youngster in whom he has a sincere interest. It will remain for the teacher to decide on the best time to approach or try to talk to this type of child concerning his problem.

A teacher who makes it a general rule not to make promises to these children will fare better. The disadvantaged child learns at an early age to take no stock in promises. Promises are meaningless; he "knows" this from past experience. Moreover, promises are often made by adults, and adults represent authority. Adults whom the child has known have lied to him. Why then should one with whom he has had no prior contact be obligated to tell him the truth? What little influence promises have over present acts is short lived. The children consider promises a sign of weakness. However, if the teacher does make a promise, he must be certain to carry it out. The teacher who does not fulfill a promise breaks a contract—and these children will not forget. In the end, they will conclude that the teacher, too, cannot be trusted.

The teacher should be equally ready to refuse what is undesirable or unreasonable. He should refuse with quiet firmness and *without* apology. The explanation should be factual, reasonable, and brief. Lengthy explanations have a defensive ring as if the teacher were unsure of himself. The effective teacher appeals to the common sense of the child with such statements as "Now you know you're trying to take advantage." "I've been fair to you, but you're not being fair to me or the class." "If you do this, you know you'll be in trouble." In addition, he will suggest positive alternatives—"Now wouldn't it be smarter if you do it this way?" "Your idea has merit, but let's see if there is another way to do it." The teacher should force the child to do something—whether it is for his own good or for the good of the class—only as a last resort, since hostility and resentment on the part of the child often result. If he absolutely must force the child to do something, he should explain why he is doing so, and make the explanation brief and clear. If the child needs to be disciplined, the teacher should try to use the child's own values as reference and not impose an alien middle-class set of values on him.

Helping the emotionally disturbed child. Socially maladjusted and emotionally disturbed children pose special challenges, and there are many to deal with in slum schools, especially because their home conditions are likely to have harmful effects on mental stability. These children may suffer from many psychological disturbances, and their difficulty in school may be only one manifestation. Because they often cannot function in a regular classroom situation and because school seems a threat to them, their school problems snowball as they pass from grade to grade.

Some disturbed children are quiet and inhibited, passive and indifferent. They are often dispirited, insecure, and afraid of the world around them. Others are more volatile. They are easily provoked by minor frustrations. But because they lack self-control and cannot postpone gratification, their rage is immediately discharged. Such children may be demanding; their expectations are infantile and must immediately be satisfied. Still others are alienated, extremely rebellious, and unwilling to work. The alienated and rebellious child is probably the most difficult to deal with. For such a child, the teacher represents authority, which he resents.

Because of an inability to get along, socially maladjusted and emotionally disturbed children usually are disliked by and feel isolated from the rest of the class. They are school failures and are afraid of more failure, no matter what its nature. What they need is a sympathetic and understanding teacher who will coax and help them understand themselves and adjust to their peer group. They need to be given work that they can successfully complete. Moreover, they need to be introduced to more mature and understanding children who will be friendly with them, and who will not reject them. These children need to feel that they belong in class and in school. The teacher can help by having them work with their classmates on class projects and by encouraging them to participate in classroom and extracurricular activities. The fact is, emotionally disturbed children are usually interested in one field to the extent of potentially becoming experts. It is for the teacher to find this proper field of interest by closely scrutinizing their class work and by talking to them privately; their adjustment in life depends on this guidance.

Helping the Child Adjust to School and Society

Using group counseling sessions. One way to help remind students of their role and the need for cooperation is to hold at least a ten-minute group session once a week or one on any day when it seems necessary. These sessions can effectively help children to understand themselves and to cope with their personal and environmental problems. Disadvantaged children, in particular, need to understand and accept their performance in the learning process. Many need assistance in their academic work; many need help in gaining insights into their behavior, so they can look at it more realistically. They need to distinguish right from wrong in class and to get along with both their peers and with persons having authority.

How should the teacher conduct the group session? First, all work stops. The teacher listens to the students. He encourages each student to feel that he can contribute to the discussion. He also encourages each child to respect the values and opinions of others. The teacher then directs the discussion toward problems he thinks are relevant for the group and for the individual. The students learn to think and reason for themselves, as well as to arrive at their own solutions. They ask questions and comment about each other's work and behavior. They know who the "cut-ups" are. They want, but rarely have a chance, to express their viewpoint.

Ideally, sessions should utilize and support group condemnation and approval. This creates the best rapport between the teacher and the class, and also provides a healthy class atmosphere for each student. Sessions conclude optimistically—for example, what might be done to improve the learning situation. If the session is effective, the children will accept their responsibility in class, accept the learning situation and the role of the teacher, see themselves realistically, and modify their behavior according to the suggestions of the group.

Using individual counseling sessions. It would be advisable for the teacher to keep in mind that the worst "problem" child needs a friend. Praise and understanding are new for a person who is accustomed to failure and rejection. The judicious teacher devotes extra time for getting to the root of the child's problem before it comes out in the class. He seeks the actual cause of the child's poor work and poor attitude. On a one-to-one basis, the teacher can turn the child's frustration into more positive efforts before his behavior becomes uncontrollable and before direct action is needed. This interest counts and usually earns the child's good will. The student who may be the teacher's "biggest problem" in class can become his best friend.

The teacher can talk to the child before school, after school, or during lunch or a free period. The teacher should refer to the child's cumulative record to understand him better. The cumulative record will give him information about family background, personality development, test scores, interests, and career goals, and will include other teachers' comments.

During the private session, the teacher should respect the individual student's feelings and opinions, and avoid embarrassing him. Instead of criticizing, he should offer suggestions. A primary concern is to help each child learn about himself and accept himself, as well as to adjust to others and to work with his peers. To help the child be aware of his problems, the teacher might draw out the youngster's own evaluation of himself as well as the reasons why he behaves as he does. In this way, the child will reach his own conclusions about what can be done.

Using the school guidance counselor. Finally, the teacher should call on the school counselor to help children with severe problems for assistance in ascertaining educational and vocational goals, accumulating background information, and testing. The teacher's referral should be specific and supply details for the counselor to work with. The teacher's help will be welcomed.

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BEHAVIORAL CHANGES THROUGH PRINCIPAL-TEACHER PLANNING

GERALD MATTHEWS AND CLYDE D. STAPLETON

A PRINCIPAL must not only deal satisfactorily with youngsters who exhibit problems in their day-to-day behavior, but he must also work out a satisfactory administrative relationship with the teacher in an attempt to find a solution that will assist the student in his school adjustment.

The primary task in educating a child is to help him to reach his highest potential both socially and intellectually. If a child's mind is occupied with day-to-day problems that seem to him unsolvable, he will not be able to function properly in the classroom. For this reason, he must learn how to deal with problems. He must be able to cope with varying situations before he can reach his fullest capacity.

Moreover, in a community where parents are apt to be skeptical of the value of educational achievement for their children, the staff and administrator often must redouble their efforts to reach the parents as well as the child. The Rawsonville Elementary School has made concerted efforts to assist parents to develop a better understanding of the school through a Parent-Teacher Association and parent study groups. Nevertheless, it has met with limited success in parent participation. Many of the children reflect defeatist attitudes when making such statements as: "School can't help me," or "I'll quit school when I am sixteen and go to work." A large number of these children were three to four years educationally retarded and many had not been given an opportunity to have successful experiences in a school setting.

The idea for a special project originated at the beginning of the school year when many problems arose with fifth- and sixth-grade children who had been repeatedly referred for disciplinary action the previous year. The assigning of these pupils to classrooms was difficult. The students were separated in classrooms according to their capability, to progress they made the previous year, and to teacher recommendations. There were two fifth- and two sixth-grade classes involved in placement with four beginning teachers at these levels. The classes averaged about 30 students per room. The most efficient way to handle the situation of placement presented a problem from the administrative point of view.

The staff and administrator felt that if more positive attitudes toward

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school could be stressed in the classroom, many of the children would develop a better self-image. It was hoped that children would discover alternate ways of behavior, thus decreasing the number of behavioral referrals to the office. Following a series of staff meetings, it was decided that two approaches should be followed: 1) to initiate a group guidance procedure in the two sixth-grade classrooms, and 2) to develop a more intensive approach with those youngsters in both the fifth and sixth grades who presented the most disturbing behavior to the classroom teachers. The primary focus of the project would be to allow potential failures to experience success.

The classroom group procedures involved primarily the use of Ralph Ojemann's teaching program in Human Behavior and Mental Health. This program relates a series of incidents and stories that stress a causal orientation to behavior. Prior to the use of these materials, a test was administered to three sixth-grade classrooms to determine how causal youngsters were in their approach to incidents of behavior. The higher the score, the less causal were the students in their approach to behavioral situations. The mean scores of the two classrooms containing the experimental groups were 13.4 and 11.2, and the score for the sixth-grade control room was 15.1. In addition to the prepared material, the two experimental rooms utilized conflict situations that arose on the playground or in the classroom. This called for behavioral decisions to be made by the teacher or the principal in regard to learning situations for the group through the use of a causal approach. The control group made no attempt to utilize material and handled behavior in the group with the teacher-centered approach. It was decided that the only youngsters in the control group who would be exposed to the causal approach would be those youngsters included in the small-group counseling sessions.

At the conclusion of the school year, the same test instrument was utilized and the mean scores of the two experimental rooms were 5.9 and 5.5 which indicated that the youngsters did understand that there are causes for behavior. The mean score of the control room was 12.2 and the reduction on this score was reflected in the scores of those youngsters who were exposed to the small-group counseling sessions.

As the second phase of the program, two groups of six boys each were established for more intensive group counseling. The groups were composed of referrals requested from the sixth-grade teachers. The teachers listed those youngsters who seemed to respond less to the classroom groups, as well as those youngsters who had been most frequently referred to the office. Though the selection was inadvertent, both groups were composed of only boys. The groups met for 45 minutes every two weeks. The primary aim of the small-group counseling was to permit these youngsters to deal with the situations in terms of their behavior. At the beginning, the counselor who was not a member of the school staff was confronted by the boys with questions about his identity. They wanted to know whether his role was that of a member of a guidance clinic, a head-shrinker, a psychologist, or a cop. One of the boys was insistent when he said, "I know you will say 'no' when I ask if you are a cop."

These boys were all achieving below grade level, although test records indicated they possessed a greater potential for learning. They were hyperactive, restless, and at the beginning of counseling consistently tested the group leader with their aggressive behavior. As the sessions progressed, the boys began to discuss freely their feelings about school, interpersonal relationships, as well as their own personal behavior within the school and the community. The use of earthy language was quite prevalent and their knowledge of antisocial behavior was a common ground for several discussions. Tape recordings were made of many of the sessions. However, these recordings were made only after confidence was established between the boys and the counselor. The recordings were later played back at the boys' request and these sessions also served as a learning laboratory for the boys. Prerecorded tapes were made of incidents such as the role of the substitute teacher, and the boys commented on these stories and incidents.

The administrator, staff, and counselor felt that in addition to educational needs, these twelve boys needed to establish a satisfying relationship in the school setting. Here was a group of boys that rarely had an opportunity to be chosen as leaders because of their behavior and lack of educational achievement. One of the proposals made was to have these boys act as tutors to first-grade students who were in need of remedial assistance. There were many reservations among the staff as to the possible reaction to the plan of these sixth-grade boys, who themselves were experiencing difficulties. Yet the staff agreed that the plan was worth the effort, and the principal began to assist the boys in learning the mechanics of tutoring. First-grade teachers agreed to provide the students with the skills and lesson plans they would need in their role as tutors.

Since most of the older students involved in this program had had academic and emotional problems when they were in the lower grades, it was not entirely surprising what a great insight they displayed in working with the younger boys. Some of them assumed responsibility quickly and took pride in their assignment. Obviously, they had not had such an experience. The first-grade boys spoke of the older boys as teachers and referred to them in this manner. The older boys planned lessons and escorted the smaller children to and from their assigned rooms throughout the building; they consulted with the teacher, and requested many teaching aids (textbooks, flash cards, and chalkboards). Many of the older boys became diplomats and expected the younger children to act accordingly. These same youngsters sacrificed their recess periods to be "helpers." One sixth-grade boy was overheard commenting to a first grader, "You know, I used to have a reading problem myself."

From an administrative standpoint, the principal observed a vast improvement in disciplinary problems. One of the boys who seemed to be "tough" is now using reasoning to solve problems. Another boy who seemed to hate men now relates very well to them. Most of the fifth- and sixth-grade boys who had been impulsive anti-schoolers and nonthinkers now seemed to solve their problems through thinking and reasoning. It no longer became a task to get them to admit their mistakes. Previously, many of the boys seemed to accept being blamed or shamed for minor infractions. From experience the project did build a better self-image for the boys in the program. Moreover, learning actually took place by proxy for the first graders. The following comments were made by teachers of the first-grade youngsters.

"The most important outcome from the association of my first graders with the sixth grade 'big boy' was the buildup in their sense of worth. It gave the little ones a feeling of identity with someone who was interested only in *their* reading problems. This close one-to-one association seems to be what the child with reading difficulties needs."

"Both pupil and helper had great enthusiasm at the beginning of the program. George (a first-grader) had only nice comments about his visits with Mike (his tutor), and I think he definitely enjoyed the relationship with the young male peer."

"There seem to be two major advantages to this type of program. First, it gives the younger child a psychological lift to know that there is an older child who wants to hear him read. My two first-graders eagerly awaited the helpers each day and were much disappointed if they did not come. Paul was so upset when Jim stopped coming that he seemed to take it personally. Secondly, the children definitely benefited from a twenty-minute drill period each day. This is the best way for these slower children to learn and it is an advantage for an older child to conduct this drill rather than a child from the same class, on apparently the same level."

As the administrator and staff reviewed the program of student tutoring, it was agreed that organizational structure should be revised. The staff made the following suggestions:

- Provide closer supervision of the reading time.
- Give greater structure to the program, using the staff reading consultant to coordinate the program and involving teachers and students in tutoring.
- Have the tutors become part of the first-grade room and work with the students in a reading corner of the room.
- Ask the teachers themselves to set up more specific programs for the helpers to follow and provide them with specific measures of success so that both helpers and students could see concrete examples of success.
- Provide a time to talk over ideas and give suggestions which could produce more rapport between the teacher and the "helper."

Primarily the purpose of the project, at the beginning, was to develop a better self-image in the students; the secondary rewards from educational gains were most satisfying to the staff. Teachers, through close appraisal of those youngsters involved in the projects, were better able to understand and to see the individual differences. They were also better able to adjust programs to help those students have a successful experience in a school setting. The enthusiasm generated by the staff will continue these projects and lead the way to further innovative studies in the area of behavioral change.

CREATIVE DISCIPLINE

EDWARD F. DEROCHE

A RECENT NEA poll indicated that classroom discipline is still one of the most persistent problems that teachers face. According to the poll, experienced teachers feel that the difficulty of maintaining discipline has increased since they began teaching.

Kooi and Schutz[1] have classified what teachers regard as disturbing student behavior into five categories:

- Students who are physically aggressive
- Students who disturb their peers and encourage them to "escape from classroom routine"[2]
- Students who strive to be attention-getters
- Students who defy teacher authority
- Students who continually complain and criticize the activities and procedures of the class.

Such disturbing behavior patterns exist in every classroom in varying degrees. As experienced teachers know, however, teachers cannot teach and youngsters will not learn if discipline is lacking. Because of this, we have always been concerned with the *control* of behavior. Yet, the *expression* of behavior is equally important since it provides the best situation from which students can learn methods of self-control.

What is creative discipline? Creative discipline means that the teacher employs new or original techniques when coping with classroom behavior. By using this approach, the teacher helps youngsters *understand* their actions and emotions. In a creative discipline approach to classroom behavior, teacher and students learn to develop the ability to interpret, understand, and evaluate the behavior exhibited by themselves and their classmates. This positive approach is designed to replace our traditional view of treating student behavior as an intrusion upon teacher authority and group learning.

> Realistically, there is increasing evidence to support the hypothesis that children who find healthful satisfactions in relationships with family, neighborhood, and school will, as adults, find these same satisfactions; and that the children who find frustration and defeat in these primary institutions also tend to be defeated as adults.[3]

Creative discipline, then, provides the motivation for both student

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and teacher to explore the meaning and the implications of the way they act. The following five techniques are designed to help the teacher achieve creative discipline:

- Developing sensitivity in pupils
- Using originality in coping with behavior
- Employing flexibility in dealing with classroom problems
- Providing opportunities for pupils to express their feelings
- Helping pupils analyze their behavior.

Developing sensitivity in pupils. As the first creative technique, the teacher should develop ways to help youngsters become sensitive to the way they act. For example, John's continuous talking in class is very disrupting. To solve the situation, the teacher may fall back on some rather traditional techniques. He can continually remind John that he is disrupting the class; he can isolate him; or, when he has come to the end of his rope, he can send John to the principal. Quite possibly, he may repeat these techniques over and over again, many times to no avail. On the other hand, he might try another technique. He can use the situation to help John and others in the class to realize that this type of behavior is interfering with learning and with a proper teacher-pupil relationship in the classroom. He might ask the class to discuss such questions as: In what ways does talking disrupt discussion or learning? What can we do to correct this problem? What would happen if all of us talked out whenever we wanted to? Why do people need and use parliamentary procedures? How can each of us contribute to orderly classroom procedures? What can we do to provide everyone with the opportunity to share his opinions and ideas?

As David Ausubel stated,[4] "Democratic discipline. . . . provides explanations, permits discussion, and invites the participation of children in the setting of standards whenever they are qualified to do so." Since disciplinary situations are usually packed with emotion, tension, and frustration, it is easy to cast off such suggestions as impractical. Yet, somewhere, somehow, students must learn about their behavior and the behavior exhibited by others. Where else can this be accomplished better than in the classroom?

Using originality in coping with behavior. Teachers need to plan original approaches to discipline. Of course, originality is determined somewhat by teaching style. Good discipline just doesn't happen. Teachers have to plan for it, teach it, and evaluate it. When usual methods fail, new techniques are needed. Role-playing, humor, discipline cards, and teacher-pupil conferences are a few of the many valuable and new techniques the teacher might try. For example, Bill constantly makes rude remarks in Mrs. Jay's class. Mrs. Jay realizes that the usual techniques are not improving the situation. Trying a new approach, she asks Bill to select a discipline card. On the card are four statements:

I acted this way because ....

I shouldn't ....

I think that improvement can be made by ....

My classmates may ....

Bill is responsible for interpreting and completing the sentences. This technique will provide Mrs. Jay with information on how Bill feels about his actions and why he acts the way he does. It will also help Bill think about his behavior. If the technique doesn't work, Mrs. Jay might try another technique, perhaps role-playing.

Thus, teachers share originality with students. Students will discover that they, too, can be original in dealing with home and school problems. Teachers should be imaginative and original in developing ways for students to learn the qualities of cooperation and self-restraint. They need to bear in mind that anything done to enhance self-acceptance will eventually lead to good conduct. John cannot act his age until he has been given opportunities to know how his age should act. Bill or Sally cannot grow up until they have had experiences in analyzing and discussing behavior with others.

Employing flexibility in dealing with classroom problems. Teachers should always be flexible in their reactions to classroom behavior. The behavior patterns described in the introduction suggest that teachers need to be flexible in coping with each type of behavior exhibited. In reality, the teacher should react to each youngster in a manner best suited to his temperament and personality. Hence, the teacher should avoid reacting in an autocratic fashion. Instead, he should help the entire class react to behavior problems as provocations against the group. This is not to suggest that he abdicate his responsibility. Instead, he should use his influence to help others determine what is and what is not adequate behavior.

> The child or the older student can learn from a crisis, but not if it is so severe—and the people around so unhelpful—that he is forced back upon primitive devices (denial and repression) that have served in the past.[5]

Flexibility indicates that the teacher is human. Some situations will demand sternness, others punishment, some humor. By being flexible, the teacher provides an atmosphere of security and warmth where students feel free to discuss their behavior in an objective and positive manner.

Providing opportunities for pupils to express their feelings. The teacher employing creative techniques provides opportunities for pupils to express their feelings concerning discipline, adult-peer relationships, emotion, social achievement, and other basic needs. Imagine how interesting it would be for students to receive a homework assignment to think about some of their major problems and to develop one or two for classroom discussion or, if preferred, for a teacher-pupil conference. Bearing in mind that a problem well defined is half solved, the teacher can encourage sensitivity to problems, and originality and flexibility in thinking about them, by providing exercises similar to the following:

MY PROBLEM SOLVER

The problem is ....
Facts about the problem are ....
I can get help from ....
My ideas on the problem are ....
Other people's ideas are ....

I will use these ideas ....

As an alternative, the teacher might ask the class to discuss a behavior problem by using these questions: Who is concerned? What happened? What caused it to happen? How can we help? How can the individual help himself? Nothing can replace effective communication between and among teacher, student, and classmates. By allowing the child to express his feelings, the teacher enhances his chances for pride, courtesy, and respect.

In this way, the teacher also creates opportunities for students to participate in some "do-it-yourself" thinking about the way they act or behave. As Kelley states, "How a person feels is more important than what he knows. This seems true because how one feels controls behavior, while what one knows does not." [6]

Helping pupils analyze their behavior. Teachers should help students analyze and generalize about their behavior both in and out of school. Just as teachers attempt to provide for transfer of learning, so they should encourage transfer of positive behavior patterns. The concepts youngsters have of discipline are based on past experiences. These experiences usually contribute to the development of a negative attitude toward those in a position of authority. Teachers can help pupils appreciate the positive aspects of behavior. By creating situations in which youngsters can develop meaningful relationships, they help themselves understand the need for controlling overt behavior both in and out of school, for the benefit of both the individual and the group. Teachers must transmit such essentials as learning self-restraint, being courteous and respectful, knowing one's strengths and weaknesses.

To children, the teacher and the principal are as much authority figures as the policeman and the judge are to adults. By understanding relationships, children receive a most positive view of authority. "Adjustment involves the ability to solve one's personal problems in socially acceptable and constructive ways." [7] This ability should be developed from the various interpersonal relationships formed in the classroom.

Using imagination. Perhaps the most important technique of all is to use techniques in imaginative ways. Our approach to behavior has often been defensive. Our current task is to develop imaginative ways in which children can learn positive behavior patterns. The teacher should deal with any form of adverse behavior (adverse behavior in the teacher's judgment) in three stages:

- Do what is necessary to assure respect from the class.
- Correct the individual offender or group.
- Guide the individual offender and the class in an analysis of the situation, utilizing as many creative techniques as necessary.

Such treatment of a situation requires patience, understanding, and imagination. But teachers are made of these qualities. In the same way that groups are utilized in the classroom situation to facilitate or obstruct learning, they should also be encouraged to understand behavior. As Chester Barnard said: "To try and fail is at least to learn; to fail to try is to suffer the inestimable loss of what might have been."

Behavior Card

YOUR NAME ....

TODAY'S DATE ....

DIRECTIONS: This card is to help you to tell me how you feel and what you think about your behavior. Your responses will be confidential. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers.

I acted this way because ....

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I shouldn't ....

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I think that improvement can be made by ....

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My classmates may ....

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FOOTNOTES

1. Kooi, Beverly Y., and Schutz, Richard E. "A Factor Analysis of Classroom-Disturbance Intercorrelations." *American Educational Research Journal* 2: 37-40; January 1965.
2. See footnote 1, p. 38.
3. Bower, Eli M. "Primary Prevention of Mental and Emotional Disorders: A Frame of Reference." *The Protection and Promotion of Mental Health in Schools.* (Edited by Nadine Lambert.) U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Bulletin No. 1226. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. p. 3.
4. Ausubel, David P. "A New Look at Classroom Discipline." *Phi Delta Kappan,* October 1961. p. 28.
5. Sanford, Nevitt. "Ego Process in Learning." See footnote 3, p. 25.
6. Kelley, Earl C. "The Place of Affective Learning." *Educational Leadership,* April 1965. p. 455.
7. Garrison, Karl C.; Kingston, Albert J.; and McDonald, Arthur S. *Educational Psychology.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1955. p. 455.

WHAT AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL THINKS ABOUT DISCIPLINE

CARLTON B. McNAIR

NO one can draw a blueprint for discipline. No standard model has been tested, proved, and mass produced. Any practical approach, therefore, is going to appear over-simplified. Everything a teacher does or does not do, says or does not say, affects a student in a positive or a negative manner. The teacher is the cornerstone of discipline. For this reason, the guidelines that follow are directed to the teacher and are designed to help him achieve good discipline in the classroom by means of his own behavior and attitudes.

Be yourself. Children respect adults for what they are. They respect you, the teacher, for what you are as much as for what you know. An elementary school youngster generally comes to school with a desire to learn and a desire to have a teacher who likes him and whom he can like in return.

You can build on this attitude. Furthermore, you can do it best if you have confidence in yourself and can relax and be yourself.

Conscientious teachers have always asked themselves, "Do I really like children?" And rather than settling for "yes" to this broad question, they have gone on to ask themselves: "Do I like all children? Do I like the dirty child? Do I like the bright child? Do I like the pretty child? Do I like the dull child? Can I care enough about each of these children to free him to be himself?" Whatever the answer, the child will know whether it is an honest answer or not. He can spot insincerity a mile away; so why "put on"? Just relax, be yourself, and have confidence in your ability to handle the situation for which you have been trained.

Because the emphasis in the elementary school is on the individual, guidance becomes the function of everyone who comes in contact with the student. This means the teacher needs to function as a guidance person as he goes about his teaching duties. As Ruth Strang wrote: "Guidance is education focused on personal development. It is a process of helping every child discover and develop his potentialities. Its end result is personal happiness and social usefulness."[1]

Be positive. Since emphasis is on the individual in the elementary school and guidance is a part of the function of the classroom teacher, you must exercise control through positive personality traits rather

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[1] Strang, Ruth. "Guidance in the Elementary School." *Guidance for Today's Children.* Thirty-Third Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1954. p. 2.

than through fear. However, do not try to be a "pal" to the children. You are the adult in the group. You are also the leader and children expect this. They will feel let down and disappointed if you do not assume your rightful place.

In a practical, everyday school situation, some correction is necessary. Such action stops or quiets a child temporarily. It gives him time to think over what he has done. Nevertheless, when the teacher uses correction, he should use it with discretion and always with the trained realization that it will not improve the social behavior of the child. Correction is not an end in itself; it is only a beginning. Once correction has been made, the teacher must start over with the child. Few teachers can convince a small child that discipline means the teacher likes him but does not like his behavior. On the other hand, by means of praise, the teacher shows the child that he approves of him as a person.

You can praise in many ways—by a glance, a nod, a smile, a pat on the head, or a word as you go by. Use facial expressions and your voice to help achieve your desired goals in discipline. This is not to infer that you should give undeserved praise or pass out flowery compliments every hour of the day. But honest praise helps the child who has been corrected realize that you are not "mad" at him.

Be businesslike. Helping the child achieve personal happiness does not mean that your job is to keep the child "happy." You should not equate correcting a child with being "mean," or equate allowing the child to run wild with being "nice." The classroom atmosphere that is most conducive to learning conveys an attitude of "here is the task we have to do; let's get to work and accomplish it together." The business of doing the job together and working things out will bring the satisfaction of a job well done. It will also achieve complete acceptance by both you and the pupil that it is a mutual achievement.

Be consistent. Another important trait of a teacher's personality that affects children is the consistency with which he controls the classroom. Nothing disturbs youngsters more than the teacher who allows everything today and nothing tomorrow. A teacher with widely variable moods undermines pupil security. Therefore, work toward consistency in attitude. Consistency, too, in routine things that must be done over and over in class provides the student with the security of knowing what to expect and how to come through.

Plan ahead. A discussion of planning logically follows consistency. One phase of planning that affects discipline is assignments. The teacher who plans one assignment and expects it to keep all the children in the class busy for the same length of time is naive.

Plan each assignment, then, so that it provides variety. Try to arrive at different ways to apply the specific process or skill you wish the class to learn. You may find you want to assign some things to part of the class and others to the rest. Later they can learn even more by sharing what they have learned.

Another phase of planning that affects discipline is the setting up of classroom routines. Look for trouble spots and plan around them. The children can help you plan acceptable routines. Guide them in listing simple rules and keep the lists short.

One such trouble spot might occur when the children enter the building in the morning. This is important: a rowdy class can mean loss of valuable class time getting started for the day. What is it that we want? Children sitting absolutely quiet in their places until school starts? No. Children should be able to move about the room, talk in normal tones with each other and the teacher. They should start the day in a businesslike way. They need to be ready for the day's work. Even though they help plan the procedure, they will need reminding until it becomes accepted and operative.

By planning ahead, you can avoid another trouble spot: activities that keep children quietly in their places for too long a time. Establish a routine for changing from group to group and for changing from activity to activity. Once again, pupils can help, though they may need to be reminded. Eventually, though, they will become organized enough to spend more time and energy on the business of learning.

Another routine procedure that needs planning is moving through the building quietly. This does *not* mean regimentation and soldier-like lines. However, an entire class must frequently move through the halls quietly in order not to disturb others. Pupils have been told this since they were in first grade, but will they automatically do it? Probably not. If they do not, bring them back and have them do it over. It's amazing how fast children catch on.

Know where to go for help. Since prevention is the key to successful discipline, you should know where to go for help and when. Your principal is your prime ally. Let him in on the situation at the first sign of trouble. Counsel with him as you plan how to proceed. Do not, however, expect him to handle the situation for you, although he will be glad to follow through with whatever procedures seem appropriate.

Parents are also a source of good help in most cases. Discussing Johnny is their favorite topic. Although they know he isn't perfect, they will usually be grateful that you are interested in helping Johnny improve. They, too, are human.

Know what good discipline is. Good discipline maintains good working conditions. A class that responds willingly and quickly to routine requests of the teacher is a well-disciplined class. A teacher who can control noise when necessary—without pressure—has good discipline. Finally, a teacher must put in considerable effort to establish and maintain good discipline. However, he will be less tired doing this than he would be from planning an inadequate program, coping with poor discipline, and then battling through to the end.

When you, the teacher, have created and maintained a classroom atmosphere in which the child is accepted and loved as the person he is, and is thereby encouraged to find and express himself within the limitations of reasonable rules and regulations, you have good discipline.

CLASSROOM CONTROL:
A TEACHER'S DILEMMA

FRANK W. HARMON

THE bell rang and the sixth graders reluctantly left the relaxing freedom of summertime to meet their new teacher. Each year students meet their new teachers, but these meetings are generally conditioned by the teachers' established reputations. This particular meeting, however, was difficult for both teacher and students: difficult for the teacher because he had no experience to fortify his decisions; difficult for the students because they would have to learn by trial and error how they were to live for the coming year.

The teacher introduced himself and assigned a lesson. One boy, who was tall enough to be overage, responded with a loud "Do I hav ta?" The question unnerved the teacher. Only six months ago, he had been a student asking the same question of an insistent advisor. He had found courses less enjoyable when they were required. Consequently, he found it unpleasant to force a student to do his bidding. With such thoughts in mind, his response to the boy's challenge was anything but decisive and the class quickly sensed it. Needless to say, this was only one of many difficult and unpleasant decisions that he had to make that year. The chaotic sessions that followed in the classroom for the rest of the year indicated that our beginning teacher did not always make decisions that contributed to an orderly class.

The details of this story may be unique, but the theme is as old as institutionalized education. Beginning teachers frequently have a painful experience at the outset of their teaching careers, and many of them dread each day of that first year. To complicate their anxiety, they know how important classroom control is to those who judge them.

Classrooms are a type of community, and social control in a community is an application of the ethics of the community. Ethical principles are general statements about how people ought to behave. If communities (classrooms) are to function productively, the members of the community have to agree on how they will behave together. In the classroom, the teacher has a crucial role in establishing the behavioral standards of the students. However, a number of problems in modern society complicate this role.

A changing society frequently brings about ambiguous ethics. As a result, misbehavior is more common. Modern societies in particular are being changed by technological advances; consequently, they suffer

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from an ambiguity of values. Standards are not nearly as clear as they can be in a society which is homogeneous and unchanging.

When a student attempts some type of marginal behavior and the teacher reacts ambiguously, the class quickly senses his uncertainty and the marginal behavior increases. Eventually, the teacher reaches a point where he is no longer ambiguous. Unfortunately, by that time, a pattern has been established that is difficult to break. Experienced teachers defend themselves against this type of experience by learning to appear unequivocal about the behavior they expect even when they are not so certain inwardly.

Generally, the beginning teacher is a young person who has just graduated from college. His experience in society is limited. As a result, he is not certain how students should behave in classrooms or in society at large. To complicate his uncertainty, he has devoted part of his education to studying the way children learn and grow and is well aware of how classroom experiences can negatively affect children. With visions of the damage a teacher can do to a child's mental health and intellectual development, the beginning teacher has the frightening task of trying to deal with misbehavior in a way that will not violate the child's rights and best interests. When these visions combine with his uncertainty about what misbehavior actually is, he is very apt to find it extremely difficult to be decisive as he meets real situations. In such a situation, students soon sense his indecision and before long classroom behavior has become extreme.

The higher the teacher's ideals and the more firmly he is committed to these ideals, the more difficult he will find it is to rebuild a workable classroom atmosphere. The new teacher who is only partially committed to his ideals, or the teacher who has no commitment, becomes a realist and develops an approach that he finds most effective in maintaining the order on which his colleagues judge him. The more committed teacher, however, continues the struggle of reconciling methods for classroom behavior with his own values of how children ought to be treated. In our frequently shallow evaluation of the beginning teacher, we reward the teacher who quickly acquires the values of his colleagues in establishing a workable classroom routine and punish the more dedicated idealist who may struggle for several years before he can establish a suitable relationship between his ideals and methodology.

Knowledge of how to establish control is not the central problem it is sometimes considered to be. Psychologists know enough about behavior to give us effective ways to control it. For example, an extreme method of controlling students would be to wire their desks so as to shock them when they misbehave. This method would enable a teacher to maintain control as long as he was consistent about using shocks for the things he considered misbehavior. However, certain difficulties are readily apparent and all of these difficulties are common to frequently used methods of control. Moreover, all of them cause teachers more anguish than the technical aspects of maintaining control.

- the method is morally indefensible
- the controls have a limited range of influence
- the method conditions students to acquiesce to authorities rather than develop their own commitment to values.

The control of behavior has moral implications. Almost any procedure a teacher uses to control behavior has moral implications. One of the most threatening activities humans face is making decisions which necessitate reconciling conflicting values. Parents preparing for Christmas, diplomats arranging treaties, negotiators settling labor contracts, justices setting precedents, and presidents guiding a nation are well-known situations which possess a high anxiety level because they require those involved to make decisions that have moral complications. The fact that teachers are forced to make similar decisions four to five hours a day every school day is less well known. Every time a teacher controls a student's behavior he must reconcile his convictions about freedom with his convictions about social control.

Controls have a limited range of influence. The range of control in disciplining students is another vital concern. Most teachers are concerned with how their students behave outside of class. Yet, what happens to students outside of the domain of teachers or other authorities when their behavior has previously been controlled exclusively by positive and negative reinforcement? For example, apparently respectable men in the army violate their usual standards when they are outside of the culture in which they developed these standards. When social control depends on the proximity of authority figures, it is both embarrassing and dangerous. Nevertheless, such consequences are quite likely to result when students develop no commitment to standards established in the classroom.

The method conditions students to acquiesce. The psychological studies of political situations provide an excellent example of the dangers of people becoming dependent on exterior authority. Dictators and autocrats thrive in communities where citizens prefer to have authorities make crucial decisions. Fromm[1] recognized this danger in pre-World War II Germany. The eventual and well-known consequences of this condition in Germany are a frightening reminder. To maintain a democracy, a country must have a sufficient number of citizens who are self-directed and who will resist leadership that takes advantage of a population's desire to avoid difficult decisions. A democracy must have a large enough portion of the population willing to struggle with difficult issues or it will not survive.

The gravity of these problems emphasizes a dilemma that school teachers cannot avoid in establishing classroom behavioral standards. An experienced teacher can maintain rather effective classroom behavior by being decisive and consistent when he rewards desired behavior and punishes undesired behavior. However, this ignores his responsibility to help students develop their own commitment to ethics.

Summerhill, a private school in England, has been very successful at turning out students who have developed their own commitment to values and responsibilities in life. Summerhill, however, provides students more freedom of choice and responsibility for their own actions than seem to be possible in most public schools. The public school teacher who attempts to enable students to develop their values by allowing them a choice in the way they behave will generally be forced to compromise and set limits. Compromises of this sort are painful. A teacher who attempts to establish a classroom atmosphere in which order is expected and yet allows students freedom to make mistakes and develop their own value commitment is going to be uncomfortable at times. When he establishes an environment in which students accept the teacher-enforced rules of behavior too docilely, he will worry about how he can give them experiences which will help free them of their over-dependence on exterior authority. When he establishes an atmosphere in which students set some of their own behavioral limits and they go beyond the limits of acceptable school behavior, he has the painful necessity of controlling their behavior and being inconsistent with his own commitments. The fact is that there is no way to avoid the horns of this dilemma within the public school system, and this itself suggests a different perspective for many teachers, parents, and administrators when they think about classroom control.

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[1] Fromm, Erich. *Fear of Freedom.* London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, Ltd., 1942. p. 183.

Beginning teachers will have to realize that there are no shortcuts to maturity. Maturity in this instance means the ability to make decisions that are consistent with a rational concept of life's values. Only rarely do we find a new teacher who has spent enough time thinking about the behavior of children to be consistent about what he expects of them in a classroom. Most new teachers go through this process as they teach. The process is painful. Conflicts between values invariably arise. To resolve such conflicts teachers must examine and expose their most sheltered convictions. Teachers with shallow convictions find it easier to shed values that interfere with their control of the classroom.

The new teacher who is in the throes of this type of growth often blames students, fellow teachers, parents, and his teacher training for his troubles. All of these groups are partly responsible. Nevertheless, the teacher can find the core of his problem within himself. The sooner he faces it, the more constructive his solution will be. Unless we desire teachers without ethical commitments, there is no way to make these first few years of teaching easy and free of pain.

Experienced teachers may find it easier to be themselves and maintain the class environment they desire. Yet, the teacher who honestly strives to enable students to develop their own behavioral commitments can never be free of the difficulty of balancing freedom and control. The teacher will not and cannot find it an easy process to develop maturity while maintaining his convictions. The tightrope walker provides a metaphor that is similar to the teacher's role in controlling a class. The teacher must give children the freedom to learn by their own mistakes and at the same time maintain an atmosphere which is conducive to intellectual activity. The process is a matter of balance.

The beginning teacher who looks forward to the time when he can be free of anxiety about maintaining classroom control either has a false expectation or his expectation will numb his sense of responsibility toward maintaining a balance. In either case, he needs to be alerted.

The principal's awareness of the inward struggle of the teacher is crucial. If he gives the impression that the teacher's problem is only a matter of consistently rewarding proper behavior and punishing improper behavior, then he ignores the central problem in the matter. As a result, the teacher in such a situation will either compromise his ideals or develop disrespect for the principal. In either case, the principal has failed.

The inter-personal responses of educators are crucial in giving support to the teacher's feeling that his struggle is real and worthwhile. The administrator who reflects no awareness of this struggle rewards his uncommitted teachers and forces his less secure teachers to take short-cuts as they seek the easier solution to their problem. What he must remember is that the loss of integrity, which comes with facile acquiescence to superficial standards of morality, is a high price to pay for failing to be more sensitive to the deep and pervasive moral struggles involved in the act of teaching.

IMPROVING PUPIL BEHAVIOR

JOSEPH P. ROBITAILLE

PUPIL behavior is a matter of deep concern to elementary school teachers and principals. Teachers look back nostalgically to the days when a spit ball was a serious misdeed. Today, misbehavior in the elementary school takes a much more disturbing form: writing on walls, vandalizing school buildings, destroying books, using vulgar and profane language, fighting in gangs. This kind of behavior is not typical of all pupils; it does appear, however, that a minority of children are exhibiting serious anti-school behavior.

There are a number of complex reasons for this situation, most of them related to problems which an individual teacher or principal can do little about on the local level. Nevertheless, it is possible to correct one source of behavioral problems: ignorance of the school's expectations and regulations. All too often, principals assume that a child knows when school starts, which stairs to use, what is considered proper school dress, and the like. Frequently this is not a valid assumption. Several circumstances in the schools today make it increasingly unlikely that children will understand the rules they are expected to observe.

First, the increasing size of elementary schools makes communication more difficult. In a smaller school, it is relatively easy to make one's expectations not only known but also understood.

Second, and closely related, is the increasing use of the public address system. It is so easy for a principal to speak to the entire student body through a microphone and then believe that because he has said something, it has been understood and will be followed. Unfortunately, this does not happen that easily.

A third reason for children's ignorance about school regulations is the growing number of persons who work with children in a school. In a school with a regular faculty of 25 classroom teachers, it is not unusual to find an additional 25 staff members at various times: special subject teachers, psychologists, social workers, volunteer tutors, student teachers, and a host of others. Many of these people are in the school only a short time each week, and unless they are familiar with school policies and carry them out systematically and consistently, pupils will be confused.

Finally, there is the problem of the mobility of the student population today. With more children changing schools more frequently, many of

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our students have not had an opportunity to become informed about the regulations of a specific school.

To check on whether the children in my school were acquainted with basic policies and regulations, I undertook a simple inventory. The staff identified ten school regulations which everyone believed every child in grades four, five, and six would know. These ten items included the time a child should report to school, what he should do when he arrives, the need for a written excuse after absence, regulations on gum chewing, and the like. A simple multiple choice questionnaire was then prepared and distributed to the pupils. Teachers were instructed to read the questionnaire to the children and explain any words that were not familiar.

The results were most interesting. Of the 196 boys and girls given the questionnaire, only 83 were able to answer all ten questions correctly. The girls did consistently better than the boys, and the scores for all the students were higher at each succeeding grade level. Since the questions concerned school regulations which the principal and teachers expected all students in the intermediate grades to be familiar with, it was clear that some action should be taken.

The faculty, therefore, developed a booklet specifying all the school's procedures and regulations with which children and their parents should be acquainted. It covered attitudes and their attainment, proper dress, appropriate speech, behavior going to and from school, hallway and room behavior, lavatory behavior, behavior on the playground, lunchroom regulations, and homework policy. Within each of these areas, the staff listed as specifically as possible our operational policies and expectations.

The booklet was duplicated, and after a reading and a discussion of it in each classroom, copies were sent home to all parents. The parents were asked to keep the booklet handy for reference and to review the contents periodically.

The results have been worth the time and effort. The booklet has given parents, children, and teachers a common basis for understanding school rules. As an example, many disagreements about proper dress have been settled before serious difficulties arose. A written form of the regulations has made it possible for the entire staff to be consistent in enforcing school rules and has helped the children know better what is expected of them.

Miscellaneous

PROFESSIONAL NEGOTIATION AND THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

GEORGE B. BRAIN

BEFORE we talk about professional negotiation and the elementary school principal, let's talk a bit about education itself—this business in which we are all engaged. Education, really, is the shape of the American dream. The quality and the substance of tomorrow's business, tomorrow's government, and every other aspect of human commerce depends on it. There is no place too far, no object too small or too well hidden that it cannot be comprehended by the human senses. Almost anything the human mind can conceive is within tangible realization. We are developing the capabilities of bending nature to our will, of altering life processes, and of loosening the fetters that for years have bound us to gravity.

The power to acquire unlimited knowledge and to turn it to constructive use is the lever that educators are toying with these days. Education is becoming the nation's largest growth industry; one out of every three persons in the United States is directly engaged in our educational system. Today, we have approximately 125,000 separate educational institutions, with over 57,000,000 students, and nearly 2,600,000 teachers involved, and this does not include those who are engaged in adult education and in extension courses.

What the railroads did for the second half of the last century, education may do for the last quarter of this century. Education may serve as the focal point of our national economic growth and development. And the prestige that once belonged to the aristocrat, and then to the rich man, will belong instead to the knowledgeable expert. It will—at least if those of us who are in the educational setting can resolve the problems and the issues which are now seeking to divide its leadership, for we have to admit that education these days is being buffeted by pressures and demands and protests.

Actually, there is no single institution that is sacred any longer. The voices of dissent are raised against the existing policies in *all* areas of American life. But education is in the process of radical change, and the newest ingredient is the militancy of teachers. In September 1967, seven states experienced teacher strikes. These lasted from one day in Randolph, Massachusetts, to three weeks in New York City. The teachers in 35 Michigan communities remained away from work when school began in

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1967; and in the spring of 1968, it was the State of Florida and the cities of Albuquerque, San Francisco, and Pittsburgh. This month or next, additional work stoppages will affect many other schools and communities. When work stoppages occur, the question that is most frequently asked is: "Will school keep or not?" And the spotlight is focused on the principal.

The Militant Teacher

Teacher strikes have taken their toll. During the 1967-68 school year, they idled nearly 2,000,000 students and 70,000 teachers. The tremendous loss in tax dollars that occurred from operating schools attended by pupils during teacher strikes and the assumed loss in learning among pupils point dramatically to the seriousness of the problem. Yet, one cannot overlook the conditions that have caused teachers to resort to strike action in an effort to improve their lot and to gain control of their profession. It is safe to say that teachers no longer will hesitate to speak out. Indeed, even more militant teachers' groups will begin to confront and disrupt and coerce in pursuing both individual and organizational goals.

Those of us who are in higher education have observed that the radical student activist on our campus these days is most often from a permissive, middle- or upper-class family, with a relatively affluent background. These student activists are often said to be "Spock babies," products of permissiveness and affluence. The activist does not let himself worry about making a living in the usual sense, and he is perfectly ready to accept the consequences of an antisocial confrontation.

Assuming that the tenure laws throughout the country are becoming increasingly protective, the teacher activist has little to lose when he lets himself become disenchanted with the established order of school tending. Taking his cues from the successes of the civil rights movement and the militant student groups, the teacher activist sees nothing wrong with establishing and deploying teacher power to confront and coerce what has suddenly become a much beleaguered and a much suspected group—the school administrators.

But if you are concerned about the present situation, I suggest that perhaps you haven't seen anything yet! Just wait until the present crop of student teachers, many of whom have been active in the movement toward student power on our campuses, join the teaching force and become the new organizational leaders in education!

It is interesting to ponder whether the philosophy of confrontation and conflict is cause or effect. Perhaps it is becoming an increasingly common modus operandi, a way of life to be followed, whatever the circumstance or the costs. Even if we in education could put aside the NEA and the AFT and their rivalry, if we could wipe out the present body of negotiation laws in one fell swoop, if we could drastically improve teacher salaries, fringe benefits, class loads, and all those factors to which the militancy is attributed, I suspect that we still would be left with the phenomenon which is coming to be known as the "antiadministration syndrome." I suspect that no matter how hard school administrators try to do right, how democratic and beneficent they try to be, a certain number of the teaching staff will be against principals just because they are a part of the school administration.

One of my favorite quotations, which has much to say to us as we think about the principals' response to negotiation, is from Henry Fielding's *Jonathan Wild*. It reads something like this: "He in a few moments ravished this fair creature, or would have ravished her if she had not, by a timely compliance, prevented him from doing so." Well, I suspect the task of the principals today is to think about what their timely compliance position will be. Are we to adapt to negotiation, or is it reasonable to assume that negotiation will adapt to us?

Administrator Responses to Negotiation

George Redfern, who is a member of the staff of the American Association of School Administrators, identifies among administrators three different groups with three different types of response to the negotiation movement. First of all, Redfern says, there are the "hawks." The hawks urge active resistance to the demands of militant teachers. Theirs is a hold-the-line strategy. The hawk philosophy sees, as an accompaniment to the negotiation movement, a massive surrender of administrative prerogatives and a weakening of the entire fabric of educational leadership. The hawks favor a negotiation DMZ line.

Redfern's second category is the "doves." This group sees negotiation as a natural and developmental phenomenon representing the legitimate rights of an awakened and a more potent profession. The dove philosophy calls for new alignments and new relationships, with particular reference to the real seat of educational decision making.

The third category identified by Redfern is the "chicken hawk." The chicken hawk, he says, represents the middle-of-the-road philosophy, which recognizes the developmental causes of teacher dissatisfaction but stops short of capitulation to unreasonable demands by hard-bargaining teachers. It is the chicken hawks who take the lead in the search for realistic and viable alternate models through new relationships with the militant teacher organizations.

Principals need to decide which group they wish to identify with. Frequently, however, the tendency is to see negotiation in only one light—that is, how it affects the role of the administrator. Sometimes we school administrators spend far too much time looking at ourselves. We always seem to be trying to identify our role or to see how our roles are changing—as if to say that just because we define everyone's respective role, that is the way it's going to be. We might ask the principals from New York, or Chicago, or Baltimore, or any of the large cities of this nation, if things are going to be a certain way just because they have been spelled out in the agreements or the contracts. I think that principals in those cities find, on the average, about 20 pages of detailed regulations in the contract concerning what they can or cannot ask a teacher to do. And the contract specifies exactly how a teacher can secure proper remedies for any mistreatment by the principal.

Roles as Models

But just because we say to someone "Play this role," it doesn't mean that he will do it. The question we really ought to put to ourselves is whether this role that we are concerned about is a cause or an effect. Will elementary school principals control the changing role resulting from negotiation? Or will the negotiation milieu determine a new role for them? I think it is possible to identify a number of different roles and different directions toward which the role of the principal seems to be moving. Whether these are viable or not depends on the circumstances in an individual school district.

I have outlined these roles as *models*, and I am indebted to Glen Grant of the University of California for suggesting the various model categories.

First is the *management model*. This model sees the principal following the superintendent and moving into strictly a management role. His purpose is to manage and to run an individual school under the authority of the board and the superintendent. His work is regulated and bound by the school board's relationship with employees as expressed in a contract or an agreement which has been negotiated with the employer organization.

The *management model* assumes that, at least on some matters, there is inevitable conflict between the interests of the employer and the employees. It assumes that this is a power relationship and that a communication model may not always be possible. A contract or an agreement settles these conflicts, at least for the time being, and management and employees will live by the terms of the agreement for its duration. Differences of opinion, which inevitably arise, are handled through a grievance procedure which is generally included in the agreement itself. The *management model* tends to preclude the managers and employees from becoming professional equals, and it seems to limit the flexibility of the school operation.

Many principals with whom I have discussed the *management model* are apprehensive about it, fearing that it will prevent them from developing an effective administrative staff at the building level. They want more flexibility in the arrangements than is usually possible under the terms of the agreement. They prefer not to have operational procedures spelled out quite so explicitly and precisely as some contracts and agreements do. But the teacher militant says that the case which the principal makes for greater flexibility to lead according to his own style is merely a call for license to administer arbitrarily and capriciously. They say that if God had adopted a similar rule, Moses would never have served as his amanuensis and the Ten Commandments would never have been written down. At any rate, there seem to be strong forces today that are drawing the principals toward the management arrangement.

The *management model* is a divided arrangement, with the board and the administration on one side and teachers clearly on the other. This model is convenient, and it is attractive to boards of education because they feel that they have the right to hire a management team to run the enterprise for them—a management team that has unquestioned and undivided allegiance to the employer side of the employer-employee relationship. This is a pretty strong argument. School boards increasingly are insisting on having strong management. And because the processes of negotiation are time consuming, boards of education—limited both in time and in knowledge about mediation—are going to expect the administrative team to do the negotiating for them and to put into action the agreements that are reached. In this way, then, the board of education calls on principals to help board members give proof of both successful stewardship of public moneys and assigned school tasks.

Now, let's look at another model—one which Glen Grant calls the *third party model.* This is the model set forth by AASA originally in its publication, *School Administrators View Professional Negotiations,* a publication which has now been revised. The position of the third party model, which was supported in the original AASA publication as a possible role for administration, is changing. The *third party model* says simply that the problem is between the board and the teachers; the administrators should be an independent third party, free to exert independent leadership. Under this model, the administrator is a friend of the teachers, interpreting the desires and programs of the board to the staff, those of the staff to the board, and always acting with the best interests of the pupils at heart.

The trouble with the *third party model* is that in the rough-and-tumble of negotiation the principal tends to be left out, or he is rendered ineffective because of his awkward fence-straddling position. To me, this is an untenable model, but superintendents and principals in some states are practically forced into this model by reason of state legislation.

Let's look at still another model, one that we call the *two hats model.* This model assumes that somehow it is possible for the principal to be both the enforcer of the negotiated agreement and the traditional democratic educational leader within the school. It assumes that the administration will bargain hard for the best agreement that can be obtained on the tough issues and that the superintendent and the principals will administer the school somewhat rigidly in these areas.

On other issues, for which bargaining or hard negotiation is, in theory, a less viable means of interchange, the building principal is free to develop his own style for reaching policy decisions in a more cooperative and perhaps a less traumatic way. The *two hats model* appears the best way out to many elementary principals, but it requires tacit understanding and acceptance on both sides to make it work. And the principal, we have to admit, is in a very delicate position, requiring the greatest of skill if he is going to be successful under this model. I suppose, really, it is a question of whether the teachers will let him wear two hats for long.

The implications of the broad scope of negotiable concerns are interesting to conjecture about. Teachers can require administrators to negotiate or at least to meet and confer on just about anything they want to talk about. The job for the principal would be a lot easier if negotiation was limited solely to the hard and economic issues. I am fully aware, in this regard, of the great difficulty we in education have of distinguishing between working conditions and matters of broad educational policy.

Norman Boyan of Stanford University and Daniel Griffiths of New York University have both written on the question of the relative "bargainability" of various educational concerns. Griffiths distinguishes between the administrative and the supervisory dimensions of authority. In the administrative dimension, according to Griffiths, the principal would unequivocally assume a position in the traditional line and staff hierarchy; in the supervisory dimension he would attempt to establish his role as a colleague—a colleague accepted as a leader by virtue of competence. He would develop other than command strategies for decision making in the supervisory arena, perhaps through advisory councils and similar arrangements.

Norman Boyan says that the need for two separate structures for teacher participation in school government is compelling. The first would encompass teachers as members of extra-school associations in developing organizational policy on salaries and extrinsic conditions of work. The second would encompass teachers as professional colleagues in the school organization, participating in decisions involving educational programs and policy. The first would permit teacher involvement via a bargaining or a negotiation model; the second would extend the classic participatory model to include the right and responsibility of teachers to participate in organizational decisions affecting the educational program.

Clearly, the identification of these two separate vehicles for teacher participation, as proposed by Griffiths and Boyan, is consistent with the *two hats model.* But there are two complications with this model as I see it. First, when the state legislature prescribes a broad scope of negotiable items, there is a tendency to throw everything into the bargaining or negotiation arena. The legislature makes no clear distinction between the "hard" and the "soft" issues. Second, it is one thing to say that we are going to handle the softer issues through some sort of participatory process, but it is quite another thing to develop these relationships in a collegial context. Many of us, I am afraid, cannot be perceived by teachers as bona fide colleagues. Teachers are by no means sure that, even on the softer issues, the traditional authoritarian position of the principal will be continued.

So much for the *two hats model.* Let's move on to the next one. Some of you have undoubtedly given some consideration to the *academic model* and to its application in education. There may well be some implications for elementary school principals in the way that universities are run. I have been in the field of higher education for only a couple of years, but I am beginning to see how decision making is accomplished at that level. Believe me, it is a slow and complicated process, and it takes place in two separate arenas.

You are all aware of the existence of the academic senate or, on some campuses, of what is described as the resident instructional faculty, and of the way in which the academic departments of a university operate. Side by side with the academic decision-making machinery exists an administrative hierarchy of traditional line and staff relationships. The significant academic issues are settled in the faculty arena. The administrative structure exists primarily to support and implement those decisions, and, except in student personnel concerns and in fiscal matters, the authority of the administration is circumscribed.

I know of one public school system that, partly in pursuance of the philosophy of decentralized administration, established a representative faculty senate which enjoys considerable power. The superintendent in that district acknowledges that in senate activity he is only one member with one vote. The school principals are involved on a representative basis, and the superintendent says, in effect: "If my principals and I are not persuasive enough to carry our debate in the senate, then we are not really worth our professional salt and we have no business being there." Well, that's one man's view. In that particular district, the board of education has seen fit, by and large, to rubber-stamp the decisions of the faculty senate policy recommendations. In the senate arrangements, the principal has to see his role of leadership as being of the collegial variety. I hasten to caution that I don't know how the senate will settle the hard issues, if the school board backs off. Thus far, in this one school district, the senate has acted with competence and responsibility. I presume that so long as they continue to do so, the board will continue to accept their recommendations and implement them.

And yet the *academic model* is breaking down in some of our institutions of higher learning. This is because a significant number of the faculty do not feel that the representation pattern of the academic senate provides significant leverage against the trustees or the administration in establishing salaries and working conditions. The evidence on this is as yet inconclusive.

Let's go to another model—the *conspiratorial model.* This model is not often found, but it may be appropriate in situations where the principals and the teachers feel compelled to collaborate against the superintendent and the board of education. Or, it may be more appropriate when all three—the board, the administration, and the teachers—feel they have to conspire against an irresponsive community.

It is not a particularly good model, but it is necessary to mention it because it occurs rather frequently in the operation of school systems at the building level when the principal thinks of himself as a head teacher rather than as a manager. In such cases, he is often cast in the role of having conspired with the teachers against the superintendent and the board.

Another model—one that we probably have not achieved yet anywhere in the United States—is the *paternalistic model.* One way to attempt to thwart teacher militancy would be to give teachers everything—establish top salaries and fringe benefits, provide perfect facilities and equipment, ideal working conditions, and minimal class loads. In 1968, however, it is not possible to be paternalistic enough in any school building to alleviate all teacher militancy, even if the principal could somehow manage to persuade the superintendent and the board of education to finance such a show.

Another model is the *problem-solving model.* This model has two premises: first, the premise of a joint problem-solving orientation in which the teacher and the board representatives study and work together to solve the district's problems cooperatively; second, the premise that both sides are capable of the restraint necessary to refrain from escalatory tactics while discussions and negotiations are under way.

The teachers under this model will not resort to coercive tactics and the deployment of teacher power; the board will not act unilaterally nor arbitrarily. This kind of model is more difficult to attain in situations where the parties are mandated by law to sign an agreement at the close of negotiation. Whether this model will long endure in the absence of "teeth" for the teachers remains to be seen.

A final model is the *hire-an-expert model.* Increasingly, school systems across the country are attempting to get the administration out of negotiation by hiring someone to carry the negotiation load for the school board. The theory here is that negotiation creates scars that jeopardize the administrator's ability to be an educational leader. Why not, therefore, hire an expert and let *him* get the scars? There are several problems with this model, as I see it. First, after the negotiator gets the agreement, the administration still has to administer it, and that is going to give the principal scars. Second, there is the concern that the administrator's role of decision making is going to be compromised because the really important decisions will be made by the negotiator and the board without involving the principal at all. And, of course, there is the problem of finding a negotiator who is satisfactory to the staff, to the administration, and to the board.

Some people are saying that we must take labor relations specialists and give them the necessary background in education for these kinds of tasks. Others say that we should develop negotiation specialists within the professions, administrators who are trained and experienced in negotiation. The jury is still out on this question, but I feel that the arguments for the last arrangement are quite persuasive.

At this point, let me caution principals about the folly of their becoming the negotiating agent for teachers. In such a situation, the principal could rarely, if ever, come out on top. He could not be successful in this particular role. If he satisfies the teachers, he probably is not going to satisfy the administration, the superintendent, and the board of education. If he satisfies the board and the administration, he probably is not going to satisfy the teacher group. Moreover, he is going to compromise himself in the process of effecting other compromises in order to reach an agreement.

The important thing is that somehow we avoid the situation in which the board has its own man and bypasses the established administration of the school district. This problem can be worked out rather simply if it is clearly understood that the negotiator reports to the board through the superintendent, and if the administrative staff, including the principals at the building level, have been involved.

From all I can gather, it is possible for a board of education in most of our states to prescribe certain preliminary administrative channels for testing the administrative viability of the proposals with principals in such a way that the superintendent, or another administrative officer, can effectively do the bulk of the board's negotiating. To me, this is the wiser alternative.

Management—Principal—Teacher

Now I am left with the task of saying something encouraging to elementary school principals. Clearly, in my judgment, principals are being drawn more and more to management. The traditional two-way loyalties of principals—to the board and the superintendent on the one hand and to the faculty on the other—are under stress. Sometimes principals have found it desirable and perhaps necessary to shield their teachers from the central office and the board. This idea of mock rule, in which the stated rules and regulations are overlooked by passive agreement, is an interesting but a difficult concept under which to operate.

It may be a viable technique of educational leadership for some principals in some situations, and there is research on this subject that you might want to look at. I am inclined to think that the principal must perceive himself—at least as far as his official role is concerned—to be a part of the management of the school system. In the long run, he has only his job to lose if he doesn't. It should be clear by now that I really do not have much sympathy for the principal who is concerned about no longer being able to stay in the middle; when the chips are down on the hard issues, the principal has to face reality. He is on the management side of the table.

There are two ideas which become immediately appropriate at this point. First, principals must be represented on the district's negotiating team. I want to repeat that. *Principals must be represented on the district's negotiating team.* And you, as a principal, are going to have to help the superintendent understand the necessity of your being on the administrative team during the negotiating for the school district, because if the superintendent does not see the importance of your being there and he wants to go it alone in negotiation, you are headed for trouble, for confusion, for chaos.

Second, I think that the building principal has to develop sound and viable participatory techniques at his building level. The extent to which the elementary school principal is going to be allowed by his faculty to lead in his own building according to his own administrative style will depend on his ability to establish himself as a colleague, to establish a collegial authority, not an administrative authority.

I commend to you, for example, the idea of a principal's advisory committee on which the principal sits as a colleague and in which group no holds are barred. It is through such a group, acting in policy areas that go beyond any agreement or contract, that we can develop the flexibility and the mutual respect so necessary to a quality operation at the school building level.

In this discussion of possible models and possible behaviors on the part of the administrators—particularly principals—it was my intent to identify some of the variables and the alternatives that are available to you as principals. You are going to have to decide for yourselves, however, what your role in negotiation is going to be. This is a professional decision, and a personal decision. The National Education Association cannot decide it for you, state teachers' organizations cannot decide it for you, the Department of Elementary School Principals cannot decide it for you. It's a decision that you are going to have to wrestle with yourselves individually and you are going to have to make it for yourselves.

Your national professional organization can offer guidelines, the state organization can offer guidelines, and the NEA and other organizations can offer guidelines, but you alone have to figure out where you stand and then behave accordingly. And you have to determine your stand within the framework of state laws—some of which already exist, some of which you may help to shape.

I have tried not to be too prescriptive in the models I have described, although I think you understand my particular bias. I emphasize that the various alternatives I outlined for you are not mutually exclusive;

they can be pooled as necessary. The one thing we can say about the negotiation arena is that it is dynamic. It is also traumatic. But I think we ought to recognize that it isn't necessarily overpowering and it can help to make the principalship far more vital. The end result of negotiation can be to regularize practices that would generally be beneficial and fair to all. It can make clear and specific what has been, in many cases—perhaps in far too many cases—unclear and confused. And where mutual cooperation and respect exist between the faculty and principal, the contract or the agreement will typically not infringe one iota upon the rightful responsibilities or the authority of either the teacher or the principal.

Teachers have the right to organize, and this is a fact of life that principals and other school administrators and boards of education across this country must learn to live with. It is a right that is authorized by statute in some states and exists *de facto* in others without legal authorizations. Most authorities are convinced that if teachers are granted the right by law to share in the decision-making process affecting wages and working conditions, the schools will become far more effective.

If, in the arrangement which the teachers choose, or in the arrangement which the legislature visits upon your school system, principals and supervisors are excluded by law from representation in negotiation, they should have the right then to have their interests heard and considered. In larger systems, this may mean separate units for administrators and supervisory personnel. In the smaller ones, the rights of principals and supervisors to negotiate with the superintendent and the board may be recognized less formally, but each school system is going to have to make these determinations in a systematic manner. There has been no perfect law devised to govern the process of negotiation. States which enacted negotiation statutes more than a year ago ought to be reviewing them in light of today's realities, and especially in light of what has happened this particular year.

There is one area in which principals can encourage action. Every effort should be made to cut down the risk of militant teacher action, because it does affect the learning opportunities for students. By making sure that teachers are appropriately involved in the decision-making processes where they have not already been accorded that right by law, you can contribute to unity and to the improvement of the learning environment for young people.

The world of state law should, I think, be limited to establishing the rules of the game while leaving the game itself to the parties concerned, helped when necessary by voluntary arbitrators. Any legislation dealing with the inevitable conflicts that will arise in the process of negotiation should strongly encourage the contending parties to devise procedures of their own for settling disputes without interrupting the school's service to children.

By almost any definition applied to public employment under such laws, the principal of the school is a management employee. Once this concept is accepted, there can be few questions about what the role of the principal must be. He must contend with the question of how a two-party system may function within a school and how he, at the same time, can be professionally effective. If the principal feels that he has been dealt out of the negotiation process, I would say it is because he has not been invited, he has not volunteered, or he has not insisted on his right to be involved. Principals have to assert their rights in this regard. There is no question but that the initial, practical impact of the negotiated agreement falls most heavily on the school building principal. If principals have not had a voice in drafting and testing the bargaining agreement or contract, then resentment and disaffection will surely follow, and that leads to more chaos and more confusion.

So the principal, as I see him, really becomes the quality control specialist in the bargaining process. He must put to the test of administrative viability all of the specifics included in the negotiation proposal affecting the educational program. The principal has to take the lead in seeing to it that programs and proposals are received for professional appraisal and consideration.

The negotiation process presents a splendid opportunity for the principal to demand an updating of services to children, and the principal should be knowledgeable and creative enough to suggest alternate methods of implementing the various educational programs and innovations for this purpose. In fulfilling his obligation of public and professional accountability, the principal will increasingly become an evaluator of educational programs—not a rater of teachers, not an evaluator of teaching effectiveness in the traditional sense. He will become increasingly important to the operation of the quality level of the school system as he is able to appraise effectively the quality of the various educational programs conducted in his own building or indeed throughout the school system.

I think teachers have to become more concerned about the outcome of their work, about their educational product, so to speak. They have to be the designers, determining how the process is to be implemented and what will improve the product. Teachers should not follow the narrow specifications handed down by a board of education, a superintendent, or a school building principal. Each child is different. We recognize it; teachers recognize it; and no two classes are the same. Communities have wide variations in values and modes of living, and successful teaching and learning cannot be a fixed process. It should be constantly changing. Good teaching is a creative production, not a routine operation specified by the terms of a negotiated agreement or a contract.

But the program is what the principal must focus his attention upon and make sure that it is effective for its purpose. Teachers, more and more, are working together as members of a team; good instructors are relating their teaching techniques to the home, to other institutions in the community, and to the lay leadership in many and varied ways. The elementary school teacher works with an individual child only a limited amount of time. Most of his school day is spent with groups of children. Teachers surely have their own unique road to travel, but teachers and principals ought to work together creatively to further the welfare of both children and teachers.

There is a strong possibility that the decision for or against continued unity in the profession may be made by teachers themselves. This is a fact that the principal must face. The principal can contribute to unity and to sound decision making by teachers, but teachers are in the majority. During the current battle, I wonder who it is that is working most diligently to make the elementary schools of this nation function better than they have functioned in the past.

John Gardner reminds us that the tough problems are the ones that test our resolve. We will not really find the answers to those problems in our organizations. Through our organizations we can make a common commitment to them to act now. But we must also realize that the final answers to these perplexing concerns really lie within ourselves.

CULTURAL PROFILES FOR ALL—AN EXPERIMENTAL PROGRAM

ROBERT R. MARCUS, EDWARD BISPO,
AND IRVING KATUNA

ALONG with many other downtown schools in cities across the country, the Benjamin Franklin Junior High School in San Francisco has been faced with the problems of educating large numbers of Negro students from low socio-economic backgrounds, Although we had a highly qualified and dedicated faculty and had tried many special programs, we knew we were not succeeding with a majority of the students. Too many of our students were failing or getting into trouble, and many of the students were dropping out of school as soon as possible.

As we analyzed the situation, we recognized that one of our major problems was motivation. Many of the students looked on school as irrelevant to their own lives. They felt that their dark skin automatically relegated them to failure. As a result they had little incentive to achieve. This was aggravated by the fact that many of them came from homes where there was no positive adult image with which to identify and where there was no evidence of the rewards of an education.

Our response was to develop a program called "Cultural Profiles for All." This program brings the students into contact with successful Negro adults and, equally important, provides a different focus for the regular school curriculum. By bringing community leaders into the school—both as visitors to meet with the students and as subjects of classroom study—the program offers the students positive adult images with which to identify and increases their interest in learning.

A different focus for the regular curriculum is achieved by matching the life and experiences of the adult "image builder" in every conceivable way with the content of the curriculum. Thus geography, history, civics, English, science, or math is presented in relation to the background of the adult. For example, if the image builder was born in South Carolina and later moved to California, the students discuss the geography and history of both areas and take an imaginary train trip across the country, learning en route about other sections of the country. One can easily see how a unit on the westward movement could be taught in this way. Or, if the visitor is a writer, the English teacher can use the occasion to teach grammar and composition. In each case, there is a deliberate inclusion of significant Negro history which is germane to the visitor's life or occupation.

In integrating the visitor's background with the curriculum, the general

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subject-matter content for the grade level is usually followed rather closely, but the sequence in which the material is presented often varies from the traditional.

With children of low ability, it is sometimes necessary to depart more radically from the regular curriculum and present a self-contained unit built, around the visitor, which does not closely relate to the prescribed grade level content. We feel this is justified because the unit usually captures the children's attention and this, in itself, is often a major accomplishment. We have also found that with low-ability students, it is important to provide a greater variety of units built on visitors' lives and experiences.

This kind of a program, of course, requires specially written materials. The curriculum office prepares extensive biographical and occupational profiles of each visitor, written at various reading levels. Each student in the participating classes receives copies of these materials as do all the teachers on the faculty.

As far as possible, the students are encouraged to participate in preparing materials. Before each visit, one of the students draws a sketch of the image builder, using a photograph as his guide. Usually the art classes design posters which announce the forthcoming visit and which are displayed on the main bulletin board. The students also help by planning the questions they would like to ask the visitor and by preparing critiques of the program after each visit. These critiques are used by the faculty in planning future programs.

Despite the temptation to involve all of the students in each visit, we have found it wise to limit the group to three classes or 80 to 90 students. In a larger group, the students would not feel as close to the visitor and it would be more difficult for all those who wanted to ask questions to do so. While many teachers and students have been disappointed when they could not participate, they can all benefit from each visit.

The nonparticipating students become familiar with the community leaders through the posters in the main hall, and they also have the opportunity to meet them after school when the programs for the participating classes are finished.

The classes selected to study and meet with each image builder are from the same grade level and subject-matter area. This makes it easier to prepare appropriate written materials and to match the background of the visitor with the regular curriculum. We also select classes with different ability groups in order to give children who would normally have little contact an opportunity to mix with each other.

During the actual visit to the school, the community leader is limited to a twelve-minute introductory speech. The rest of the hour is devoted to questions from the students. Since they have studied him thoroughly and know about both his successes and problems in life, they are eager to question him.

Following the community leader's visit to the school, the classroom teachers follow up with classroom discussions. Then a field trip is taken to the visitor's working environment and the students have an opportunity to observe him conducting his business. The field trip also further solidifies the students' feelings of kinship with the leader.

The following description of the work done in connection with one of the participating community leaders illustrates the operation of the program.

The image builder in this case was a municipal court judge. He was contacted about the project and enthusiastically agreed to participate. Then we began to collect material about his life and his work as a judge, including information about the court system in San Francisco and in the State of California. Some of this material came from newspaper editors, some from the judge, and some from our own research.

Next we selected the three classes which would be directly involved in the judge's visit. These were all eighth-grade social studies classes and were selected because their regular curriculum included a study of American history and government, including the judicial system, and because the teachers all had the same preparation period and therefore could work as a team with the curriculum assistants and principal.

A week was taken in writing the materials to be used in the classroom. A special biography of the judge, bringing in related Negro history, was prepared along with material about the local and state judicial systems. Copies of these materials were given to each student in the three classes and to all the teachers in the school. At the same time, an art teacher prepared several large posters with the judge's photograph and some information about him; one of these posters was placed in the main hall of the school.

The three social studies teachers worked with the students several days, using the curriculum material written about the judge. They stressed both the idea that the judge was a successful Negro and the importance of a good education to success. The students were also encouraged to think of questions they would like to ask the judge.

On the day of the visit, the judge met with the 90 students, making a brief presentation and answering their many questions. Then, after the dismissal of school, a large group of other students came to the room and barraged him with questions. The following day, the three social studies teachers followed up on the visits and led the students' discussion.

Then the final part of the project was put into effect. Each of the three classes was taken to the city hall to sit in the judge's courtroom and hear a case. The judge stopped the proceedings to speak to the students from the bench and explained the legal problems of the case. Following the time in the courtroom, the students toured the city hall and visited the mayor's office. Each group of 30 students was accompanied by the teacher, a curriculum assistant, and the school librarian.

We have no statistical measures of the effects of the project but we are convinced that it has helped the teachers as well as the children. Too often, teachers in a downtown school see only the disadvantaged Negro child and fail to acquire an image of more successful Negroes—an image which is important for their personal attitudes and important for their teaching.

More important has been the eagerness of the students. Their attitudes toward the program have been unusually positive; many of the students who have failed to express themselves in regular classes have been very vocal in asking questions and in participating in discussions about the visitors' jobs and lives. On days when visitors are scheduled to be in the school or when field trips are planned, the absenteeism drops considerably. The students are eager to have contact with these successful adults; they want to touch them, to watch them, to hear them. Somehow, they seem to feel the aura of success surrounding these community leaders, and this has a considerable effect on their own attitudes and their expectations for themselves.

Finally, the fact that the program is closely integrated with the regular curriculum—and, in fact, becomes a basis for presenting some of the normal grade level content—has motivated the students to learn more. They seem to be better able—or more willing—to grasp the curriculum when it is related to the lives of the successful Negro adults they study.

EVALUATING TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS BY INTERVISITATION

DAVID H. SPAHR

EVALUATION is a process essential to improving the teaching-learning situation. It is a continuous endeavor concerned with revising existing practices and procedures in light of new knowledge and techniques. Its purpose is to ascertain the degree of teacher effectiveness in promoting learning, and it suggests ways in which weaknesses may be corrected and strengths reinforced.

There are differences of opinion among educators with respect to the term "rating" and its relation to evaluation. For purposes of instructional improvement, rating should be employed in passing judgments that are used as a springboard for planning. It consists of collecting evidences of learning or the lack of learning for the purpose of alerting teachers to needed improvement or change in direction of the learning activities.

With this in mind, The Pennsylvania School Study Council (PSSC) has conducted intervisitations among several elementary schools. The long-range goal is to initiate this project on a council-wide basis in some 27 Pennsylvania counties.

Background Planning

Before the program could be launched, a pilot study was made to determine the feasibility of evaluating elementary schools by intervisitation among a group of them. The success of the plan was so encouraging that immediate efforts were made to keep the idea in motion.

A videotape of an elementary classroom was prepared which portrayed a learning environment as it actually existed. So that the learners could be observed, the camera captured the pupil activity taking place. Without being edited, the tape was shown to a group of chief school administrators and elementary supervisors from council-affiliated schools. The purpose was to introduce the program and inform key leaders throughout the state about the objectives and procedures of evaluation by intervisitation. Using the *Davison Scale for Evaluating Effectiveness* (developed over a period of years with PSSC cooperation), the administrators participated in an evaluation exercise similar to what would be experienced during an actual within-classroom observation. The events taking place were designed to familiarize observers with the instrument and technique used.

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Organizational Planning

Under the plan, member schools are grouped according to geographic location; together they constitute a team within a county or larger area. In most instances, these groups include four school districts. The possible interaction that may exist is shown in Figure A.

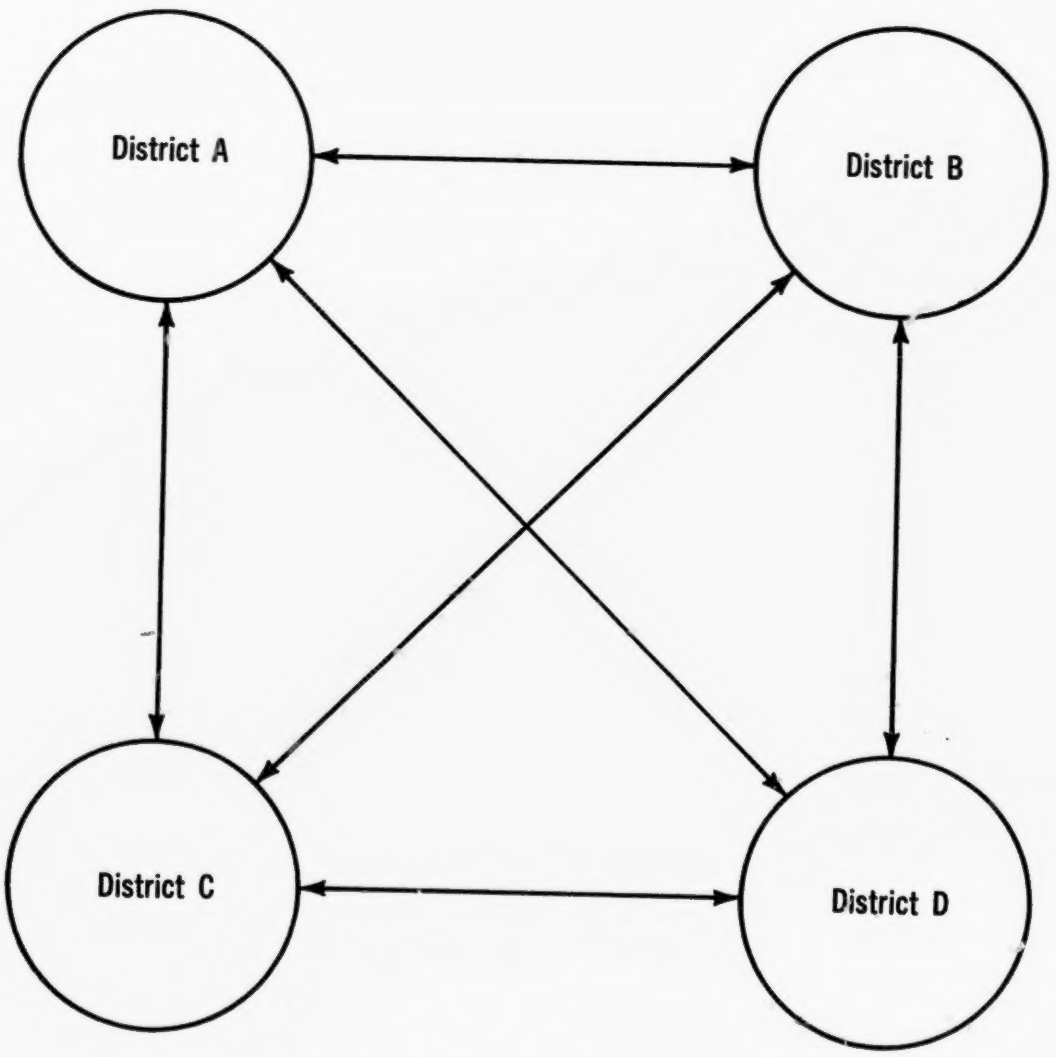

FIGURE A

Ideally, a representative part of the team for each school would include: 1) an elementary teacher, 2) an elementary principal or supervisor, 3) a parent, and 4) a school director. It was expected that each district would adhere to this format, but if for some reason they could not be represented by a director or parent, other teachers and supervisors could be substituted.

A school building in District A is identified, and planning for the visitation begins. The teacher from each classroom to be evaluated is taken through a series of preparatory activities, working with the elementary supervisor in the district. The teachers study the evaluation forms so that they are aware of what evidences of pupil learning the team members are looking for in the classroom. In effect, an in-service activity is initiated. Figure B describes this procedure:

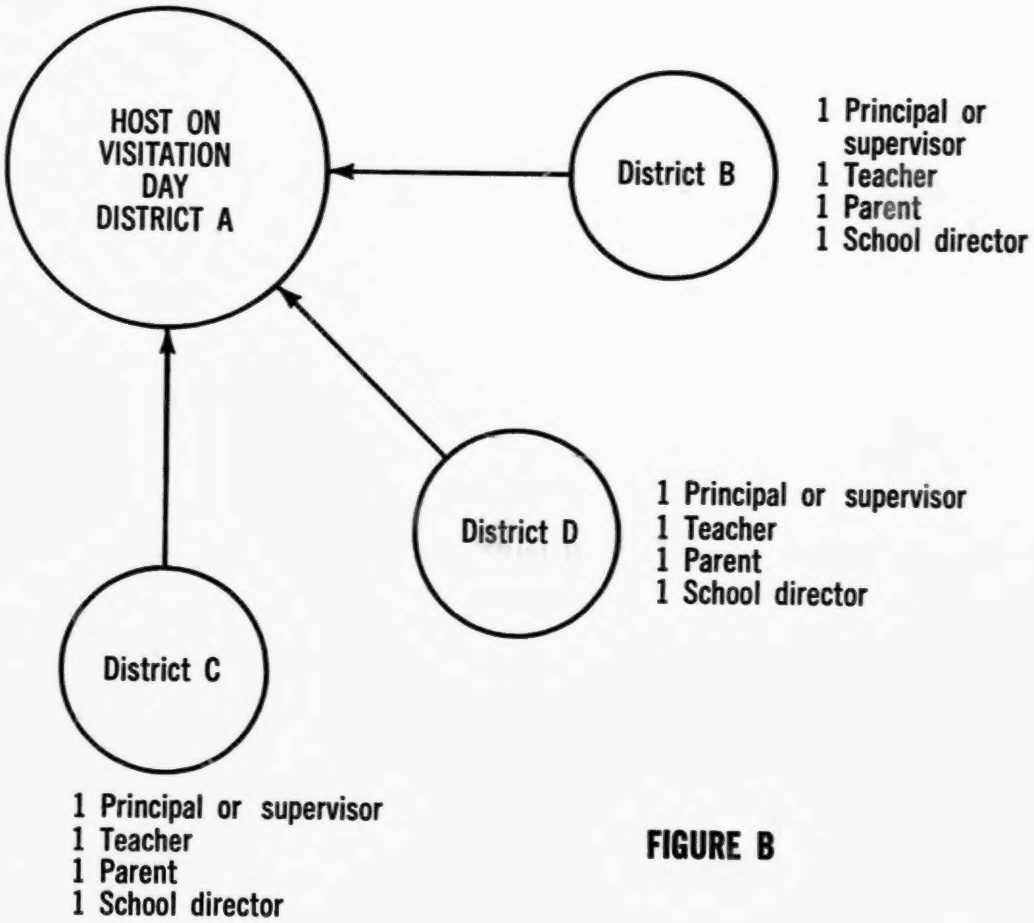
HOST ON VISITATION DAY DISTRICT A
District B
1 Principal or supervisor
1 Teacher
1 Parent
1 School director
District D
1 Principal or supervisor
1 Teacher
1 Parent
1 School director
District C
1 Principal or supervisor
1 Teacher
1 Parent
1 School director

FIGURE B

Four representatives from each of the three districts, *B*, *C*, and *D*, meet at the host school for the visitation. Each of the team members is familiar with the content and design of the materials for collecting the evidences of learning. This familiarization process is carried out by the elementary supervisors in each of the districts on an individual or small-group basis beforehand.

The Observation Visit

On the day of the visitation, the visiting team, which consists of twelve or so members, meets for a brief orientation period before the observations take place. At this meeting, which serves as a kick-off for the day's activity, all efforts are firmly coordinated. The observers are encouraged to look at the pupils for evidences of learning. They are told that the purpose is not one of rating teachers but rather an effort to collect evidences of learning in the classroom. The Davison Scale (Figure C) is designed for recording pupil activity and the extent of planning as observed. The areas included on the scale are:

A. Pupil learning
B. Teacher's plan for learning
C. Pupil preparation (participation)
D. Pupil vocabulary
E. Pupil creativity (in area)
F. Learning process

During the intervisitation, the team is divided into units of two persons each, neither of whom comes from the same school district.

FIGURE C

EVALUATION TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS IN THE ELEMENTARY CLASSROOM

IMPORTANT: The observer should consult the directions for use of check sheet before working with this scale.

Designed by Hugh M. Davidson
June, 1965

Class observed____________________
Teacher____________________
School____________________
Date____________________

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Score
A. Pupil Learning	Few influenced by the class activity		Many responses indicate lack of understanding		Instruction generally understood		Some excitement for learning		Feeling of high importance for learning	______
B. Teacher's Plan for Learning	Without objective		Vaguely organized		Useful with several lapses		Good understanding of topic and/or content; good methods used		Deep insight into content and method well organized	______
C. Pupil Preparation	Little		50% prepared		75% prepared		90% prepared		All ready with complete assignments	______
D. Pupil Vocabulary	No noticeable gain		Used a few new words of assignment		Used words of assignment or lesson		Added related words of assignment or class activity		Noticeable verbal use related to all learning	______
E. Pupil Creativity (in area)	None		Trace of creative activity		Occasional creativity noticed		Creative use of ideas by 25% of class		Used own (many—50%) initiative in creating	______
F. Learning Process	Rote learning; no discussion		Workbook method predominately		Teacher directed textbook type; some free discussion		Teacher encourages individualized work materials beyond text		Individual research done for written and oral work	______

TOTAL SCORE ______

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INTERPRETATION OF TOTAL SCORE

43-54	**SUPERIOR**
37-42	**GOOD**
30-36	**SATISFACTORY**
18-29	**PROBLEMS**
6-17	**DISCOURAGING**

____
Signature of Observer

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November, 1965

This affords an opportunity to get acquainted with someone new during the day and provides independent judgment of observation. In the classroom, the observers are free to move around or to remain in the back. Their objective is to keep their eyes and ears open for evidences of learning. The major part of their visit will be spent looking at the children as they participate in the learning activities taking place. The children are informed in advance that several visitors will be in their room on a particular date. However, this is the only preparation they receive for the visit.

Team members record their observations individually outside the classroom. There is no writing during the actual visitation; the observers are primarily concerned with looking for evidence of growth or lack of growth as described in levels on the form.

Each unit spends approximately 30 to 40 minutes in the classroom, depending on the situation being observed. Immediately upon leaving the room, the observers retire to a central meeting area to record scores on the evaluation forms and to write commendations of something that seems particularly good. The observers are also asked to make a note of any specific item on the scale that should receive additional attention. These notes are in the form of recommendations and are written on the back.

No names of teachers are used. Each observation is recorded using the symbol "x" on the *Davison Scale*. One reaction is made for each item on the scale for every visitation. There is no record kept of the grade or specialized area visited as the purpose is to get a composite profile of all the instruction in the building.

A meeting is planned in the afternoon to present the data and findings to the faculty of the host school. In order to prepare for the presentation, the team works together in small-group activity, compiling the information on cumulative charts. Thirty minutes must be allotted for the tallying session prior to the faculty meeting.

Overhead transparencies are made which show a cumulative profile of observations for each of the six areas on the scale. A list of commendations and recommendations is prepared from the comments made by the individual observers. These commendations and recommendations are evaluated and placed in order for the faculty presentation.

One member of the team is elected to explain the scales to the faculty. This is either Hugh M. Davison (the author of the scale), a graduate student, or one of the elementary supervisors from a neighboring district. The advantage in this procedure is that everyone involved receives immediate feedback. The list of commendations and recommendations is read to the teacher and this list exposes strengths and weaknesses in the instructional program as observed. A question and answer period is encouraged at this session. It is during this period that uncertainties are made known and instructional situations are clarified.

The information is then reevaluated and accurate frequency distributions on the performance items are made and printed by the Study Council. A median score is calculated which describes where the middle score on the continuum is located. A brief explanation is made under each scale and further recommendations are extended to the host school for future in-service programs.

Scale A—Pupil Learning. The most important function of the school today is to help children to learn. Furthermore, its function is to teach the pupils how to learn and develop understandings, skills, and attitudes so they may live more effectively in the future. This scale represents an over-all evaluation of the learning situation. The observers look for pupil responses that indicate understanding of the subject matter and the materials being discussed. Also, if there is an excitement for learning, this is sensed in the behaviors exhibited by the learners and recorded at the appropriate level.

Scale B—Teacher's Plan for Learning. Teacher planning and organization of classroom activities are perhaps the key to success in the learning environment. The carefully planned lesson sharply reduces the number of aimless activities that might appear throughout the teaching day. The objectives that are sought tend to be far more pointed and far more likely to be achieved when the framework of the program is systematized. Experienced observers note signs of planning: posted schedules, for example, and the way pupils shift from one activity to another.

With a plan or design for learning, the teacher is better prepared to forecast desired goals and achievements by the learners. Self-directed learning may also be taught when planning is accompanied by considerable thought as to where to meet each child at his or her learning level.

Evidence for this scale is obtained by looking for the organization in the classroom activities. For example, is a lesson or exercise interrupted frequently or are the activities carried through in a way that indicates clearly defined goals and insight into how to achieve them? In this way, the organization and flow of learning experiences are looked to for scoring this phase on the scale.

Scale C—Pupil Preparation. Being prepared not only includes having a completed assignment; it also includes having the pupil know what activity is going on now and what is ahead. The pupils need to understand what is going to be studied in the future so that they may internalize and build upon their previous experiences both in and out of school. Pupil preparation includes pupil participation. Evidence of this is obtained by taking account of the pupils as they take part, interact, and respond to the classroom activities.

Scale D—Pupil Vocabulary. Communicating effectively requires skill in the use of verbal responses. A good command of words is almost irreplaceable when the students express their thoughts and ideas both out loud and on paper. By exposing the children to and encouraging them in enriched experiences in word usage, the teacher prepares them to meet almost every situation later in life. Here is one of the outstanding areas where the teacher indeed helps the students to prepare for future learning.

It has been said that the one factor which will affect the growth of knowledge and help the students to become more learned is vocabulary. This is an area that can be incorporated into every discipline and activity throughout the school. Children are anxious to learn new and effective ways of expressing how they feel and what they know.

The verbal activity in the learning environment is very important. The observer listens to the pupils as they talk with each other and with the teacher to collect evidences of growth or lack of growth. Are the children given a chance to talk, answer, and react to statements made by the teacher and fellow learners as each lesson progresses? It is here that an alert observer looks for evidence of word usage by the children —word usage that relates to the lesson, day's assignment, class activity, or to learning in general. Other places to look for pupil vocabulary are in creative writing, class diaries, scrapbooks, and written reports.

Scale E—Pupil Creativity (in area). Creativity is concerned with guiding the learners to solve problem situations in a manner not bound by conformity to previous solutions. This encourages the students to use the skills which he or she has learned in the past. Creativity takes into account the individual's energy, his ability to consider different approaches without becoming confused, and his ability to assert himself.

The school and classroom climate has a great deal to do with developing creativity. It is questionable whether the classroom that is completely dominated by the teacher is a suitable place for developing creativity. The classroom in which pupils can exercise their own originality will probably be the one in which the learners are more creative.

The development of creativity presents a challenge to educators. It becomes increasingly apparent that creativity depends on attention to the individual. Teachers must know each pupil individually so that the best possible efforts can be undertaken to provide creative activities for each. Some programs need to consider individual projects and individual experiences that will allow each student to develop his own originality.

Because this is a difficult area to evaluate, the observer must be on guard to see evidence of creativity. This may be seen by graphic expression (writing) through the visual channel or by listening to the learners as they discuss something. Do the pupils build from past learning to new concepts that are creative for them?

Scale F—Learning Process. On this scale, the 1, 2, and 3 range envisions the learning process of the past; 4, 5, and 6 describe the learning process of today; 7, 8, and 9 are looking into the future. Evidence of this is observed and recorded at the appropriate location on the scale. This scale is a gestalt or global view of the method of instruction.

Objectives of Intervisitation

Evaluation by intervisitation is designed to fulfill several important objectives. These are:

1. Evaluation by intervisitation provides teachers the opportunity to see how other teachers teach.
2. It may help teachers to see themselves through others, evaluating themselves by observing successful practices and procedures they have used.
3. It provides each participating district with an opportunity to acquire an effective technique for looking at elementary school programs on either an intra- or inter-district basis.
4. It helps to educate key people from each participating district so that they may carry back and diffuse the technique throughout their own school district and thereby provide in-service experiences for their colleagues.
5. It facilitates the dissemination of objective devices that will aid

districts in critically examining their programs in terms of desirable and acceptable practices.

6. It provides administrators and teachers with insights regarding the quality of their elementary school offering.

7. It aids in promoting an awareness of and understanding about elementary education, not only among educators but also among interested and concerned lay people.

Limitations

1. The forms used can only sample the educational process.
2. The personnel used will vary in objectivity and experience.
3. The classrooms observed may not be wholly representative of the day-to-day activities.
4. The class activity observed may be too limited to provide an adequate sample.

However, in spite of all limitations, the main body of educational offering is present at the time of observation. The present is an accumulation of the past, its planning and progress.

It is hoped that, in the future, this exchange of observations will develop into a year-long project for the participating districts. The possibilities of intervisitation are many due to the flexibility of such a program. For example, a long-range objective could be intravisitation where each individual school district could run a program of visitation within its own schools. (See Figure D.)

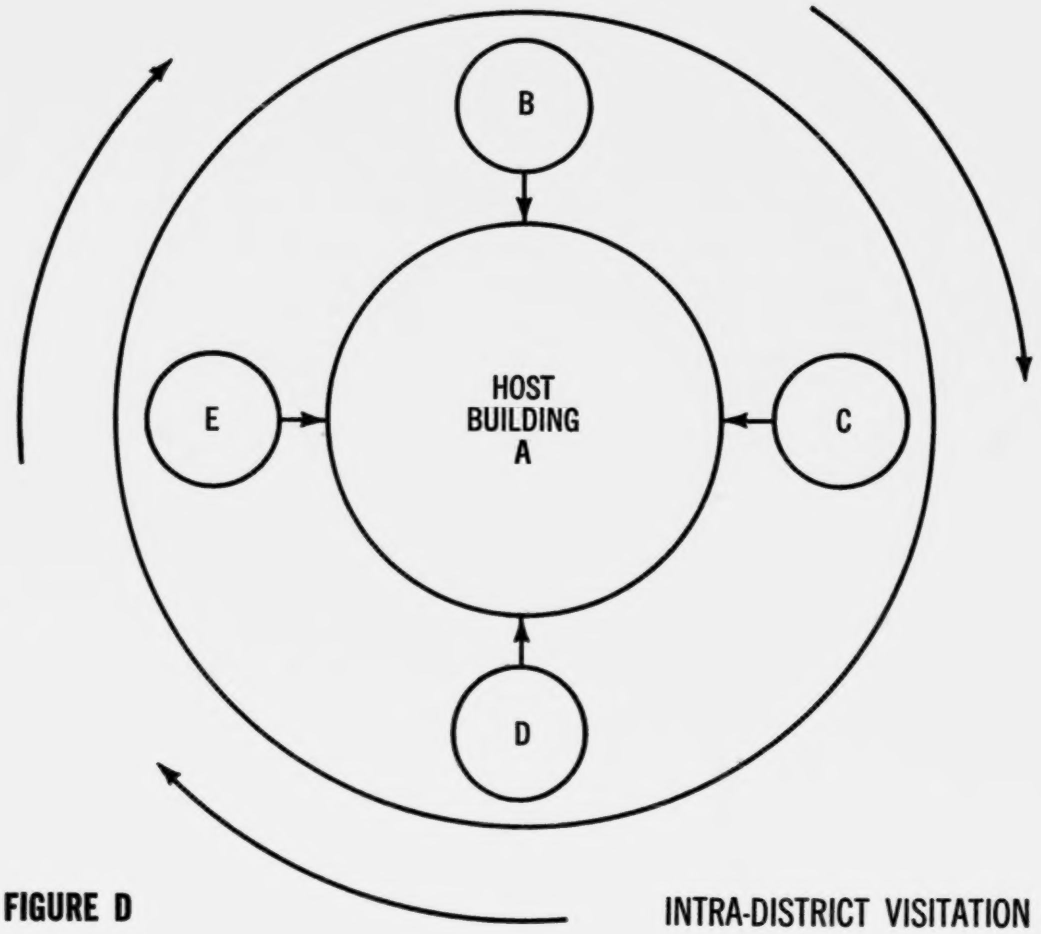

FIGURE D INTRA-DISTRICT VISITATION

Representatives from each of three elementary schools in a district, B, C, D, and E, would evaluate teacher effectiveness in the host building A. This has the possibilities of extending the program to include secondary teachers observing instruction in the elementary schools and vice versa.

Intended Outcomes

What is really happening in a program such as this is that people are interacting. Ideas are acquired by the teachers as they "see how others do it." The program in the schools is viewed firsthand by interested parents and school directors. Supervisors and principals have an opportunity to discuss mutual problems with each other and with teachers. The focus on learning becomes very real.

Every comment about the program to date has reassured PSSC that this is a worthwhile educational experience. Perhaps the most important element of the entire program is that educators, in cooperation with lay people, are objectively looking at the learning situation. Going back to the original definition of evaluation, the team collects evidence of learning or lack of learning in the classroom for the purpose of improving the learning environment. It is only after the data are collected and analyzed that positive efforts for improvement can begin.

NOTE:

Since this article was written, 20 additional intervisitation programs have been implemented with a great deal of success. Several faculty members in the College of Education, The Pennsylvania State University, have conducted some empirical research concerned with teacher attitudinal changes through the utilization of an intervisitation program. They have collected the data and are now in the process of analyzing them. Their hope is that this will prove to be an effective procedure to develop positive teaching-learning attitudes among the teachers who participate.

THE ROLE OF THE RESOURCE TEACHER

DORIS GOLDMAN

WHAT is a resource teacher? Most good schools today are organized and administered to make available various resources in materials and persons. Special resources and competencies may be used to great advantage to meet needs of teachers, group enterprises, or individual children.

Judson T. Shaplin has called attention to the increase in the amount of cooperative or collaborative activity among teachers.[1] This increased interaction between teachers at the classroom level now includes the resource teacher, who is a part of the school staff in many public school systems. Enthusiasm and interest engendered by cooperative efforts often result in a better planned instructional program, new insight into a difficult individual problem, help in identifying problems, and suggestions for solving them. The teacher in the self-contained classroom does not face his problem alone. Rather he seeks support and assistance from the resource teacher whether that assistance be personal, organizational, or instructional.

Who is the resource teacher and what is his role? The resource teacher may be many things to many people. He is a special teacher with instructional leadership responsibilities who brings special skills and know-how to the classroom teacher. He is worthy of respect and capable of identifying problems. By his own enthusiasm and interest, he is able to help the staff identify their problems, change their attitudes, and become involved in self-improvement.

He differs from a supervisor or consultant in that he is a generalist rather than a specialist. The supervisor or consultant is subject-matter oriented and is knowledgeable in his special field. The subject supervisor may be a resource to the teacher for that part of the curriculum which is that particular supervisor's responsibility. As a generalist, the resource teacher assists the teacher in improving the over-all quality of instruction by being available to support him.

It is the primary function of the resource teacher to improve the instructional program, and in order to do so effectively it is necessary to meet the needs of the teachers. These needs vary from those of the inexperienced teacher to those of the teacher with many years of service. They also vary with the differences in professional growth and personalities. For example, the beginning teacher has certain orientation needs. The resource teacher may assist the new teacher by acquainting

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him with the school's services, by providing information about the type of community the school is situated in, by making pupil personnel records available and giving suggestions to the teacher for interpreting them to secure valuable information, by explaining school policies and procedures, and by providing help in organizing and planning the instructional program. The resource teacher should also inform the new teacher of the location and availability of classroom supplies, instructional aids, audiovisual equipment, and the types of other resource persons who support the school program. In addition, it is important to acquaint the new teacher with the various materials developed by the county school system, including a statement of educational goals, curriculum guides and courses of study, and the other services provided for teachers and pupils.

The assistance of the resource teacher does not replace the role of the principal in orienting the new teacher. By meeting the needs of the new teacher through the establishment of a close working relationship with the resource teacher, the principal is better able to meet other needs and desires after the basic orientation problems have been solved. This type of orientation produces optimum adjustment of the new teacher and greatly influences his morale and initial reflections on teaching.

Experienced as well as inexperienced teachers may seek help from the resource teacher in improving methods and procedures of instruction. Many teachers need to experiment with new methods and techniques. They want to be informed about instructional aids and how to use them in improving teaching. They are also interested in discovering ways to deal effectively with pupil differences.

The role of the resource teacher is a supportive one as he works with the classroom teacher identifying problems, testing, providing instructional materials, and demonstrating various uses of audiovisual equipment. In demonstrating teaching techniques, the resource teacher provides an important service. He gives security and encouragement to teachers interested in trying a new approach and in bringing stimulating educational experiences into the classroom.

There is much emphasis today on creativity. Kimball Wiles writes: "Creativeness in teaching is not something that can be bought or commanded. It can only be encouraged."[2] It is encouraged by the attitude of both the resource teacher and the principal in providing the teacher with necessary materials, and it is encouraged, too, by giving the teacher the freedom to experiment, to explore, and to make mistakes.

The resource teacher is called upon to practice and to build good human relations. It is important for him to exhibit a respect and belief in the worth of each member of the staff and to respect the individual personality of each. Each teacher needs to be assured of his self-worth and of the importance of his contribution to the school program.

A resource teacher may also be a good friend and a counselor to a teacher. Teachers have many worries and concerns, and these concerns often prevent a teacher from doing a good job. Not all resource teachers are trained as guidance counselors, but that is not necessary. The resource teacher can still be a good listener, provide warmth and sympathy, and display concern for the teacher's problems. Once the teacher's immediate anxieties are reduced, he will be better able to concentrate on the improvement of instruction.

The resource teacher listens to a teacher's comments, opinions, and suggestions for improvements. He urges him to share his ideas with others and encourages him to work cooperatively with other teachers. In this way, he is developing self-confidence and democratic values. Professional growth is a desirable by-product, and professional growth results from professional involvement.

The duties and responsibilities of the classroom teacher have greatly increased in the past few years, and there are times when he justifiably seems overburdened and overwhelmed. He may then turn to the resource teacher for help because it is the resource teacher who offers concrete help and not mere suggestions. At the teacher's invitation, he may work with a group of children, provide material for a unit, arrange a field trip, present a special lesson, or help the teacher diagnose a problem. The value of the resource teacher's contribution may only be demonstrated if classroom teachers are aware of the functions and skills of the resource teacher. He will welcome requests for guidance and assistance and be helpful and constructive.

At times, groups of teachers need to consult with the resource teacher. Together they discuss new ways to present units, become acquainted with new instructional aids, select books for a particular area of study, suggest ways to correlate activities and field trips. Sometimes they feel the need to try a new method or procedure and to solicit the resource teacher's help and suggestions.

The resource teacher's participation in evaluation is of major concern to the classroom teacher. Some administrators believe that informal rating or evaluation should be part of the resource teacher's responsibilities. However, when a teacher becomes aware of this appraisal, a door is closed to the resource teacher and communication is disrupted, perhaps never to be reestablished.

The resource teacher should accept responsibility for providing assistance to teachers in working toward self-appraisal rather than assisting the principal in appraising and evaluating teachers. It is extremely important that the classroom teacher see the resource teacher as a nonjudgmental, helping person, one who is working to improve the teacher's skills and not to appraise them. When the classroom teacher sees the resource teacher as a supervisor instead of a co-worker, the classroom teacher may feel threatened and become cautious about revealing needs and areas of weakness. What is more important, the teacher who desires and needs help may not request it for fear of appraisal or censure.

If the resource teacher is to carry out his roles of advisor and render assistance and support, he should not be involved in any formal type of evaluation with the administrative and supervisory staff.

Evaluation of classroom instruction is essential and desirable. Although evaluation of the teacher's work is part of the principal's responsibility, the type of evaluation that is most successful in improving classroom instruction is self-evaluation by the teacher. The resource teacher can help the classroom teacher evaluate his activities, his processes, and his skills. Without the fear of judgment or rating, which is the responsibility of the principal, the teacher may discuss successes and failures, reveal weaknesses, and ask for suggestions to improve his teaching methods. Once the resource teacher has established a friendly working relationship with the teacher, he is able to assist him in analyzing his problems and in working out procedures for improvement. By his manner and assistance he can help the teacher grow in self-confidence, self-direction, and professional maturity. Evaluation that is self-directed and self-initiated is far more helpful in improving instruction than judgmental evaluation. Together the principal and the resource teacher can foster effective evaluation for instructional improvement by encouraging the exchange of experience and ideas, the development of each teacher's particular skills and strengths, and an interest in introspection.

Opportunity is presented to the resource teacher for appraising the instructional program of the school. Being able to enter into many classrooms and grade levels causes one to question the program and the inconsistency of values. Evaluation must include the group, and the resource teacher may be an active member of the group as he calls attention to existing problems in a staff planning session. The staff must constantly work toward defining its problems and evaluating its progress in order to improve the school program.

The resource teacher may be classified as a member of a team. In supporting the instructional program, he works with children, teachers, guidance counselors, special teachers, the school nurse, the librarian, the custodian, the secretarial staff, and the principal. After consulting with a teacher, he may seek aid from any one of the above people in order to solve a problem. Faculty participation and support are necessary to make the school's special services effective. Communication and teamwork of all school personnel can help children achieve satisfaction and self-fulfillment in their expanding world.

The resource teacher also fulfills requests for films, books, and science equipment. He secures suggestions and recommendations for special projects from art and music specialists. And he provides teachers with vital release time to visit and observe special classes and other teachers at work. He is also a liaison between the principal and the teacher and is often able to handle minor problems and requests for the principal. As a cooperating member of the school team, his most important responsibility is to aid the teacher in adapting methods of instruction to the varied ways that children learn and assist the entire school staff in providing a successful educational experience for children.

The concept of the resource or special teacher as part of the school staff is comparatively new. However, as the value of supplementing the skills of the classroom teacher is realized, administrators and teachers will want to secure this type of support for their instructional program. Experimentation will follow implementation of the resource teacher program, and we will discover many new ways to help the teacher and the child.

FOOTNOTES

1. Shaplin, Judson T. "Cooperative Teaching: Definitions and Organizational Analysis." *National Elementary Principal* 45:14-20; January 1965.
2. Wiles, Kimball. *Supervision for Better Schools.* Prentice-Hall, 1955. p. 101.

A READING SPECIALIST LOOKS AT EARLY SCHOOL FAILURE

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EACH year millions of children begin an experience that will profoundly affect their entire lives. Boys and girls all over this country leave their homes and are exposed to the joys and frustrations of school. Each day brings problems of deep significance to the child. Daily occurrences in school become the very stuff of his existence for the next ten or fifteen years. How he fares will be decided in large measure by his initial reaction to school. The decisions those in authority make about him during the early weeks, months, and years may establish a pattern that will dictate what course he will follow throughout his life.

What are the factors that go into the making of such highly significant decisions? Often they are mundane, personal, and even haphazard. Also, the need to conform is a basic part of human nature, and conformity with established practice is perhaps the strongest single factor in the judgments made about children by teachers who tend to be influenced by tradition and traditional procedures. Prior estimates, test results, reactions to early learning experiences, teacher opinions, all play a role in the formation of attitudes about a particular student. Events—some major, some minor—happen to and around the child. The child responds, reacts, interacts; earlier behavior patterns are challenged or reinforced; new behavior patterns start to take shape. If the child senses that he is considered inadequate by the adults around him, he very often lives up to these hastily arrived at conclusions.

Sometimes practices create difficulties where none should exist. Too many people, both in and out of education, apply adult standards of expected behavior to children just starting school. Demands are made that would require children to live up to a set of arbitrary, unrealistic, adult rules. We must ask ourselves the question, "Are we developing normal, healthy, happy youngsters or anxiety-ridden miniature adults?"

Education sometimes becomes confused about means and ends. Marks, methods, and discipline become goals rather than aids in developing the child's understanding of himself and his place in society. Many times, parents and teachers forget that small children are in varying stages of development with varying degrees of readiness for learning experiences. A child may not be concerned with the three R's because he is not yet ready to leave the never, never land of infancy.

Maturity, as it develops, is a fluid, illusory thing without form or

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structure. To establish rigid standards or norms of behavior is to reduce human beings to the level of machines; to expect strict adherence to a mythical "average child" is to ask the impossible of the developing organism. And yet unproved theories and hypotheses become everyday tools used to make long-range and potentially damaging commitments for children.

For instance, not long ago teachers and parents were led to believe that the IQ was a stable, unchanging thing. In recent years, the fallacy of this idea has been established. IQ scores make 10, 15, and 20 point fluctuations. Changes in environment, emotional upsets, language difficulties, ill health—these are but a few of the factors that influence the results of any standardized IQ test. Many schools, including the entire New York City School System, have abandoned the group intelligence test because of the inaccurate estimates flowing from them. Yet, the lives of many children have been and continue to be damaged because of erroneous judgments resulting from one of these imperfect measuring instruments.

Probably the single most important subject the child studies is reading; it is the basis for all future instruction. A child's achievement in the first years of school is a factor of great significance, and achievement in reading rates high in the minds of children, their parents, and their teachers.

Countless cases of reading difficulty are related to 1) undue stress on attaining arbitrary standards of achievement in reading, and 2) failure to diagnose a child's needs accurately and to take appropriate measures to meet them.

Ralph Rabinovitch, an authority on the clinical aspects of reading problems, tells us, "One of the great hopes expressed by reading specialists is that these cases will be diagnosed early and remedial programs instituted as close to the first grade as possible. When this is done the prognosis is more favorable than when special help is delayed."[1]

Responsible agencies agree about the importance and pervasiveness of early experiences. Yet, the lower elementary school is the place where we traditionally provide the least of what is referred to as expert help. Reading specialists, guidance personnel, and speech therapists do not usually begin to work with a child until he has proved to everyone's satisfaction that he really has a problem.

The longer a child is allowed to flounder in a state of undirected confusion, the less chance there is for successful rehabilitation. Somehow the idea prevails that reading disability can be treated and cured in some mysterious way after a few sessions with a trained specialist. Nothing could be further from the truth. The tools of the reading teacher are the same as those used in the classroom. They may be applied in a more individualized way, with a greater degree of insight, but they are essentially the same tools.

Once a child has failed to learn a skill as basic as reading, nothing short of complete rehabilitation will correct the unbelievably complex damage that has been done. The child must be retrained amidst a welter of half-learned facts; he must be retaught the matter he has failed to comprehend. Most important, the spark of desire to learn needs to be rekindled.

Holding on to the idea that a job of such proportion can be accomplished by a single teacher in a few hours is naive. It takes the combined efforts of everyone around the child, working with a single-minded, unwavering determination. And it may take a long time for a child to recover what has been lost during months and years of frustration and failure.

Somehow ways have to be found to prevent the tragic waste of human resources in proportions that are truly monumental—eight million illiterates, a million dropouts yearly, 30 to 35 per cent of the school population suffering from reading problems. Pressure has to be put on the schools from within and without to identify potential problems and take steps to prevent them from developing.

Many of the problems observed in helping disabled readers revolve around the fragile, unpredictable concept of maturity. All human beings mature at a rate that is as unique as a set of fingerprints. Growth—emotional, intellectual, physical—does not proceed at an even and parallel pace, either within an individual or from one individual to another.

The IQ test, for example, is an attempt to measure mental maturity. The child's ability to make judgments, to synthesize, to analyze is computed and compared with what is considered to be "normal." Depending on how the total score compares with the "norm," the child is adjudged to have a high or low IQ.

Children in the lowest grades are in the period of great physical, mental, and emotional growth. Each day, changes occur in their ability to deal with their environment. The child may fail at the outset of reading instruction for a variety of valid, legitimate reasons. Allowing this failure to continue—because of lack of time, or patience, or adequate extra assistance—is a perversion of the whole idea of education.

Immaturity in any of the areas of physical, mental, or emotional growth can be the insidious cause of early and continuing failure. Mary Winebrenner tells us that visual skills are still not fully developed when the child is in the fourth, fifth, or even sixth grade. "The ten-year-old is pulling in the loose ends. He shows better organization and now takes on characteristics that are his alone. He is relaxed and poised and not racing against time. He is setting out to stabilize those visual patterns he has selected."[2] Thus, the child who has been in school for four or five years has not attained complete visual independence. His rate of growth remains a uniquely personal trait that cannot be measured with complete accuracy by any human instrument.

Prior experiences play a commanding role in determining how the child incorporates what he already knows with the things he is learning. The culturally deprived and unmotivated are not the only ones who suffer because of inadequate experiences. Many parents point out that they have provided their children with a rich background of pre-school experiences, and they cannot understand how a child with such a background can fail to have profited from it. Parental distress is understandable, but it indicates a lack of awareness of the processes of growth. Maturity and the accompanying ability to profit from things happening around us cannot be administered like castor oil. It comes in its own time and in its own way. It is color-blind, and it is indifferent to religion, political affiliation, and economic status.

Another aspect of the concept of maturity can be seen in the development of children's hearing ability. The child spends much of his day in listening. Most of what he learns depends on his ability to absorb and understand what is being said by his teachers, companions, and parents. The ability to listen well is a skill. Like other areas of growth, it is a continuing process of immense importance. Albert Harris feels that "Auditory perception skill is an important element in reading readiness and in some studies has outranked all other factors in its contributions to success in reading."[3]

As adults we pay lip-service to the significance of this skill. Yet we allow children to be exposed constantly to listening experiences they are too immature to understand or utilize. Charles Van Riper, a nationally known speech therapist, writes,

> A certain degree of maturation is required for the mastery of both reading and speaking skills. The average child, for example, does not attain complete mastery of the *s*, *l*, *r*, and the *th* sounds or their blends until the age of eight years, and few speech therapists would feel a need to work with a kindergarten child who shows some inconsistent errors on these sounds. In this regard, the speech pathologist shudders a bit when he looks at the usual first primers because they seem expressly loaded with these late maturing sounds. "Look" and "see" and "say" and "run, Sally, run" probably fix and perpetuate consonant errors which otherwise would be outgrown.[4]

Similarly, there are times when a teacher may teach that the sound for "a" is like that heard at the beginning of "apple." Unfortunately, there is no guarantee that the sound is heard in precisely the way the teacher uttered it. Nor can we be sure that the child even has the ability to differentiate between a sound heard at the beginning and one heard at the end. Some children will not develop sufficient auditory maturity to remember a particular sound for months or even years after entering first grade.

Sophisticated adults find it exceedingly difficult to view the problems of the child in their proper perspective The mature mind cannot easily comprehend the immense complexity involved in what seem to be the simplest of learnings. Actions that are immediate for the adult have become so only after years of trial and error. It is impossible to remember accurately enough to describe the initial learning processes, save for a few disconnected memories. It is unfortunate, but many of our conceptions about how the child learns are based on inaccurate data and faulty interpretation of research.

Perhaps the greatest single cause of early reading failure is the indiscriminate application of the whole word or look-and-say method of reading instruction. In a recent book on reading, Arthur Heilman points out:

> At the present time, most children in American schools are taught by the "word method," sometimes called the sight method or the look-and-say method. They learn words as units even before they are deliberately taught the names and the sounds of the letters making up the words. The aim of instruction is to have the child learn a number of words before attention is paid to the analysis of words.[5]

To assume that all children are mature enough in all the necessary areas of growth to perform this terribly complex task is sheer folly. The whole word approach as an initial teaching technique has very definite limitations; to apply it to all in the same manner is illogical. The damaging effects it has on vast numbers of children are pernicious and resistant to even the most well-directed therapy. Sight methods ask the child, about whom practically nothing is known, to perform an involved operation that science is not even sure he is able to perform. Support of the whole word method is based on theory, not on proved, indisputable data. Behind the various sight methods is the hypothetical idea that we perceive or see things as total units or "gestalten." At the same time, there is another reputable school of thought that is opposed to this idea. Some physiologists propose that we learn not as a result of seeing an entire unit at once but rather because individual parts have been learned and identified as a result of continuous growth and experience. Hence, we may expect the impossible when we ask the child to learn a whole word without first exposing him to the letters of the alphabet.

Many parents and teachers have seen inadequacies in this reverse approach to learning. For the child who is immature in any of a number of areas, the sight method poses an almost insurmountable hurdle to leap in the acquisition of knowledge. It requires him to react to language symbols with a degree of sophistication that is patently impossible. It dooms many normal and even gifted individuals to a life of frustration and defeat. Parents and teachers alike must stop establishing inflexible standards that destroy for many the possibility of success.

Solutions to these admittedly complex problems are not going to be easy to find. And for a very good reason. Reading problems and accompanying school failure do not become a threat to adult security until the child grows big enough to throw stones at the education edifice. The little ones in the lower grades have no effective spokesman. They have no voice in the decisions made daily about them that will affect their whole lives. The frustration they feel may have no relief valve until it reaches the exploding point in the junior high school.

If parents want to help prevent their children from becoming distasteful statistics, then they must champion their cause. The responsibility rests on all those interested in a better education for children. The attitude of sitting back and waiting for tragedy to strike should be replaced by a more rational and more humane posture. Forces need to be mobilized to attack reading failure where it starts—in the lower elementary school. Children want to be helped before they become discouraged and defeated, not after. The pleasure of learning must not be lessened in any way because we do not find it convenient to supply the help needed at the right time.

A recent article on reading summed up the situation in these words:

> We are a reading culture. Those who cannot read are penalized by the limitations of job opportunities open to them. School children who cannot read are not only blocked in their schooling but also subjected to misunderstanding and humiliation from the school, their classmates, their families, and the community. All too often we label the child who cannot read, calling him stupid or lazy. The symptom of reading retardation calls for a precise diagnosis and specific management of the underlying difficulty.[6]

A country that can even contemplate spending $40,000,000,000 to build an anti-missile system that will in all probability be obsolete before completion cannot afford to allow millions of its young to be virtually incapacitated through lack of proper attention in its schools.

FOOTNOTES

1. Rabinovich, Ralph D. "Case Histories in Reading Retardation." *Feelings* 3: 4. Columbus, Ohio: Ross Laboratories, October 1961.

2. Winebrenner, Mary R. "Finding the Visually Inadequate Child." *Visual Digest*, 1952. p. 5. (Reprinted and distributed by the American Optometric Association, St. Louis, Missouri.)

3. Harris, Albert. *How To Increase Reading Ability*. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1956. p. 330.

4. Van Riper, Charles C. "The Speech Pathologist Looks at Reading." *Reading Teacher*, April 1964. p. 505.

5. Heilman, Arthur W. *Principles and Practices of Teaching Reading*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, 1961. p. 104.

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NO READING ALOUD

BENJAMIN MINGLE

MANY elementary schools have followed the trend toward the development of "resource materials centers." The resource materials center is designed to elevate the library into an active ally of curriculum enrichment. Naturally, no new idea in education should give rise to new and different ways of thinking. Otherwise, we would soon have our schools organized and administered along lines that no one has ever attempted before—a somewhat revolting thought.

Each year we add to our ranks a large number of new, young, and vigorous elementary school principals who properly look to the older and experienced people in the field for counsel and guidance with curriculum problems. It is in the generous spirit of sharing sagacity and know-how that I should like to point out some pitfalls and offer some sound suggestions on the subject of resource materials centers.

One of the most terrifying possibilities in the development of resource materials centers is that equipment and materials might be improperly used. Obviously, valuable materials need proper protection. For guidance on this problem, we need only look at the techniques which have frequently been employed by librarians through the years for the protection of books. Librarians are often ingenious in these matters, although they are helpless without the vigorous support of the principal. Many principals and librarians, working as a team, have already learned the effectiveness of setting up a set of firm library rules similar to the following:

1. Use the library for "library classes" on a firm, weekly schedule and keep a sharp eye out for interlopers who might possibly attempt to use the library for reading at a time for which they are not scheduled.
2. Do not allow children to use the library before school hours. Some children are positive bookworms, and they might be there every morning unless this rule is enforced.
3. Close the library promptly after school. Many children would be in there every day after school to read, to check out books, and even to do their homework, unless the librarian is vigilant and rigid in this matter.
4. Watch carefully magazines (especially *National Geographic*), books with colorful pictures, and newly accessioned books of any kind. Some children, never having been counseled about this, will often go into

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a library just to browse around among the magazines and new books. Sometimes monitors can be appointed to see that no such random recreational activity takes place.

5. Never allow any books to be checked out by children in the first or second grade, or by children—in any grade—with known behavior problems. The reasons for this are obvious.

6. Close the library to children when it is necessary to use it for faculty meetings, PTA board meetings, or any other kind of meeting for which the library is an ideal meeting place.

7. Be wary of teachers. Confer with them only by appointment. Discourage them from excessive use of professional books and periodicals with a complicated check-out system. Morover, maintain an aloof and detached air with them at all times.

How gracefully and easily these same splendid rules can be modified to include all of the materials to be housed in a resource materials center! The imaginative principal and librarian—again conspiring as a team—need only give the matter the same kind of serious thought and they will very likely set up rules like these:

1. All audiovisual equipment must be housed in the center and must be requisitioned for use at least one week in advance of the date needed. A special form should be designed, providing the librarian with a detailed explanation of the intended use of the equipment, the unit being studied, the number of children in the class, and the like.

2. All films, filmstrips, acetates, still pictures, tapes, and other materials should also be requisitioned at least one week in advance. A special form should be designed for these also. This form should provide the librarian with the catalog number of the materials, the subject matter area being studied, and so forth.

3. Teachers should be required to pick up materials and equipment no sooner than thirty minutes before their use and to return them to the center within thirty minutes after their use. Under no circumstances should these materials be delivered to a classroom or handled by children in any way.

4. If at all possible, all learning material and equipment should be kept constantly under lock and key. This will discourage teachers from browsing around among these things and perhaps discovering newly acquired materials which they might be tempted to use as a whim or novelty.

5. Teachers should be required to fill out an evaluation form each time they return materials or equipment to the center. This is a sound and popular administrative device for discouraging excessive use of materials. It also provides the administrator and the librarian with an active, running account of those individual teachers who are frittering away time on such frills instead of teaching.

Regulations similar to those listed above will act as an effective deterrent to the excessive use of the resource materials center. Materials and equipment which have this sort of protection will enjoy years and years of life, just as similar protective treatment lengthens the life of a library book.

Of course, protection of such learning materials is one of a librarian's most serious responsibilities, but the heart of a good resource materials center is the librarian as a person. Many young librarians, victims of thoughtless and impractical college training, have been swept into the mainstream of the schools they serve in such a way that they are little more than teachers themselves. In the most extreme cases, they have become burdened with foolish chores such as helping children to select books, locating a variety of materials for teachers in specific subject matter areas, consulting catalogs in order to purchase materials that teachers request, working with small groups of children on special subjects, and sometimes even conferring with parents about children's tastes and learning problems. When this deterioration of the librarian's proper function occurs, the principal cannot stand aside and claim complete innocence. The successful detachment of the librarian from the curriculum plans of the schools, as well as the successful maintenance of a protective envelope over a school's learning materials and equipment, can only be accomplished by a principal and a librarian who are in complete professional accord.

THE ROLE OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SECRETARY

ROBERT P. DOWNEY

WHAT are the primary concerns of the elementary school secretary? In preparing for a workshop to be held at a recent fall conference of the Long Island Association of Educational Secretaries, I sent questionnaires to a sampling of Suffolk County elementary school secretaries. I asked the secretaries to rank twelve topics according to their personal interest in having them discussed at one of the coming elementary school secretaries' workshops. The topics selected were those that I felt would be of importance to the secretaries on the basis of my own experience and an examination of the literature sent to me by the State Secretaries Association. The topic the secretaries would most like discussed would receive the number one ranking, while the topic they were least interested in discussing would receive the twelfth ranking.

The tabulated results of the questionnaire were quite revealing and pinpointed a number of problems that are of major concern to the elementary school secretary. The topics of greatest interest to the secretaries were:

1. Use of the office for disciplinary action or completion of class work
2. The secretary's relationship with teachers
3. Everyday office routine
4. The secretary's relationship with children
5. The secretary and first aid
6. Yearly work log
7. Budgeting daily work time
8. Filing systems.

Such topics as the use of office machines, systems for distributing audiovisual equipment, the distribution of general supplies, and the responsibility of the secretary in preparing PTA communications were of little concern to the secretaries. However, topics that involved the secretary in personal relationships with children or adults were of prime importance in the rankings.

Use of the principal's office. The use of the office for disciplinary action or completion of class work was clearly the major problem as indicated by the questionnaires. Apparently it is a widespread practice in many schools for teachers to send students to the office for disciplinary reasons, for the completion of homework or classroom assignments, or just to get them out of the room. Frequently the teacher gives little thought to the effect such action can have upon the atmosphere and

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efficiency of the school office. As a result, too often a lone secretary finds herself supervising students for whom she has no direct responsibility. Her everyday office routines are interrupted and valuable clerical time lost. Teachers often send unruly students to the office while the principal is busy observing a teacher or attending a district meeting. This leaves the secretary to cope with the problem of the moment. Situations such as these can cause considerable disturbance in an office that exists for business of a clerical nature. Instead of concentrating on typing the absentee list or the monthly reports, the secretary finds herself constantly checking on the students to be sure they are working, or disciplining talkative and sometimes disrespectful children.

After much discussion of the problem, the following recommendations were made:

1. Each secretary should let her administrator know that the presence of children in the office—for disciplinary or study purposes—presents a serious problem to a secretary.

2. The principal should establish building policies for handling discipline cases and students with poor work habits so that office routines are not upset. Policies for handling these situations may vary greatly, but they should never involve the secretarial staff. Above all, the office should not be thought of as a student work area. If the teachers feel that students must complete certain assignments during the school day, students should be sent to a supervised classroom during a recess period or they should stay after school to finish any incomplete work. Most secretaries would rather call a parent to inform her that her child will be detained rather than supervise students during the work day.

The secretary's relationship with teachers. The second area of concern to the elementary school secretary was her relationship with teachers. To improve this relationship, it was suggested that:

1. Both secretaries and teachers must understand each other's areas of responsibility. Sincere interest in each other's problems can bring about friendly relations and harmonious working conditions. When people are mutually interested in the activities, health, and family situations of their associates, they develop closer bonds.

2. Administrators must set definite office routine policies and see that they are adhered to. Too often the secretary, rather than the principal, gets involved with a staff member who is constantly violating a routine, either through neglect or thoughtlessness. Frequently a secretary finds herself on the intercom phone asking Miss Jones for missing forms or going to the supply room to give a student a ream of paper while she is in the midst of running off dittoes.

When a secretary is aware that a particular teacher is frequently violating an agreed-upon policy and that the violation is affecting the efficiency of the office, she might make a casual comment to her administrator to alert him to this situation. This will avoid future friction or inconvenience. It is his responsibility to see that all policies are followed by the teaching staff. Should the same staff member continue to be negligent, the principal should ask him for the overdue report rather than have the secretary constantly pressuring this teacher to meet his responsibilities. Such a situation is often the cause of poor feelings between the secretary and a teacher.

The staff should agree upon policies in the following areas to prevent situations that impair the effective operation of the office:

- When should general supplies be acquired?
- When should students be permitted to make telephone calls?
- On what occasions should a teacher send a child to the office?
- Is the secretary responsible for typing teaching materials for teachers?
- If the secretary runs off ditto masters or mimeograph stencils, how long will it be before the copies are returned to the teacher?
- Should students be allowed to take materials from a teacher's mailbox?

Depending upon the operation by each individual school, other needed policies should also be agreed upon. No matter what the policies are, the most important thing is that the administrator assume the responsibility for seeing that the teaching staff adheres to them.

The secretary's relationship with children. A topic very similar to the one just discussed received the fourth ranking in the poll; that is, the secretary's relationship with children. In this area, a great deal of the responsibility falls upon the secretary. It is important that she set standards of behavior for all children visiting the office. She should expect friendliness and courtesy at all times. She should also be pleasant and understanding, so that children do not fear coming to the office. If the principal establishes policies concerning such matters as when children can be sent to the office, when they can make telephone calls, and if they should be sent to pick up keys and mail, it will avoid situations where a secretary may lose her temper because of frequent unnecessary interruptions. Again, the principal has the responsibilty to see that the teachers understand and follow these policies.

Everyday office routines. Everyday office routines received the number three rank in importance. To gain an insight into what happens each day, as well as an over-all understanding of what the secretary's position entails, these recommendations were made:

For a week, even though it is an added burden, the secretary should analyze her daily tasks in this manner:

- At the end of each half-hour period, jot down the tasks she performed during that time and how much time was spent on each task.
- After keeping this daily log for a week, analyze the daily tasks by putting each individual task on a 3" x 5" card and listing the time spent on the task, by the day, and the total weekly time spent on it. Examples of such tasks would be:

Running dittoes
Preparing attendance records
Typing absence list
Answering telephone
Typing
Sorting mail

Filing
Miscellaneous duties to help principal.

- Once the cards have been completed, analyze the week's tasks after sorting the cards by the *amount of time used* and *order of importance*. See what tasks must be performed daily or on particular days of the week. Allowing for interruptions, plan both daily and weekly routines. Set up the routines to increase the efficiency of the operation of the office. And with a little persistence, adhere to the routines until they become common practice. No doubt minor adjustments will be necessary due to unforeseen circumstances.

The secretary and first aid. Many secretaries are concerned with their legal responsibility for administering first aid. This matter varies from state to state and should be checked by the school principal. Ideally, the classroom teacher or the school nurse should administer all first aid. Situations may arise, however, while the nurse is at lunch or not in the building, when the secretary finds it necessary (assuming state legislation permits her to do so) to handle minor first-aid cases. To facilitate matters, the secretary should keep a first-aid kit and thermometer in the office at all times. By doing this, she will avoid having to leave the office unattended.

Yearly work log. The secretaries were also concerned with methods of setting up a yearly work log. Two approaches will help:

1. All elementary school secretaries of a school system should meet during the summer to plan the work calendar for the coming year. This practice could be suggested to the chief school officer.

2. On her daily calendar book, the secretary should record all events and tasks that are not part of her daily or weekly routines. During the summer, review last year's calendar book and develop a work schedule for the coming year. Enter the schedule in your new calendar book, giving yourself adequate time to complete work requiring much time and effort. It is important to remember that when an important event is to take place generally some form of communication or preparation precedes it. Account for this in your planning.

Filing systems. An interest in "Filing Systems" was shown by the elementary secretaries as the poll indicated it received the 8th ranking. The secretaries received a copy of "Filing Tips" to increase the efficiency of their filing systems. The following suggestions were also made:

1. Secretaries should use the filing system recommended by their state education department.
2. They should send for a copy of "File It Right and Find It," from the National Association of Educational Secretaries, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20036, $1.50.

Time-saving tips. What proved to be the most valuable aspect of the workshop to many of the secretaries was the discussion and distribution of a sheet on "Time-Saving Tips." The questionnaire that was mailed to the secretaries included a question which asked for any unique and time-saving innovations they used in the running of their offices. Among these "time-saving tips" were:

1. The secretary should maintain "Transfers In" and "Transfers Out" folders. The sheets within the folder should be set in columns. In addition to having columns for the student's name, teacher, grade level, and date entered or leaving, there should be check-off columns for all tasks that must be done when a child enters or leaves the school system. These tasks might include:

Make up the attendance card
Make up the locator card
Enter on transfer in or out list
Change total enrollment figures
Add or remove name from class list
Send or acquire pupil records
Take care of census card
Remove or fill out street file card
Remove or fill out cumulative record folder.

With this type of check-off system, there will be no chance of an oversight, and all records will be adequately maintained.

2. Since some state laws demand that student absence notes be kept on file for a specific number of years, the following procedure was recommended to reduce both the storage space and the amount of secretarial time needed:

Each teacher should cut down the size of all absence notes so that only the pertinent information is retained. They are then placed in a No. 5 envelope at the close of the register period. This envelope should have been prepared previously by the secretary with the teacher's name and grade on it. The envelopes are then stored in No. 5 envelope boxes with the number of the register period and the year written on the front of the box. These boxes can easily be stored by years in a storeroom.

3. Items of immediate importance to the principal should always be kept in a particular location so that he can become aware of them as soon as he enters the office. This is important in the case of telephone messages, classroom problems, or other situations that need immediate attention. In one school, the secretary clips messages of this type together and keeps them on the front edge of her desk. Her principal automatically and periodically checks the clipped messages during the day and disposes of those that have been settled. This system eliminates the need for the secretary to get up from her desk frequently to leave messages on the administrator's desk. The principal must develop the habit of constantly checking this source of information so that no oversights will occur.

4. There should be close cooperation between the secretary and the school nurse on extended or excessive absenteeism. A policy should be established as to when the nurse should become involved when a child's absentee record is affecting his school performance. This can reduce office telephone calls.

5. Field trip bus runs for classes returning after normal bus dismissal time should be set up and copies kept on file in the office. A number of central bus stops should be determined so that all children can be de-

livered within walking distance of their homes by a single bus. If a field trip group is returning late, the bus driver and the teacher should receive a copy of the *Field Trip Bus Run*.

6. A *Master Schedule* of all special teachers' schedules should be put on one page. Each special teacher's schedule is put on in a different colored ink with a key showing the schedule being indicated by each color. This has great value in:

Pupil location
Teacher availability
Scheduling special events
Planning civil defense and fire drills.

7. A looseleaf collection of all schedules, including the master schedule, should be kept in both the secretary's and the principal's desks. Each schedule should be kept separate from the others with a tagged divider for easy location.

8. Preparation should be made for kindergarten registration:

- Prepare a packet of materials for each parent in advance and clip them together.
- Provide adequate tables and seating.
- Print a chart indicating all instructions to be followed and exhibit it where forms are to be completed.
- Have the parent self-address two envelopes (one for kindergarten orientation notice and one for bus schedule and room notice).

9. Sample copies of all forms, notices to parents, and dittoes used by the office during the year should be kept in a separate file. This can be a great time-saver the following year; completely new forms and letters do not have to be composed.

10. A policy for scheduling the use of audiovisual equipment should be established. For example, teachers might sign up on Monday mornings for audiovisual equipment to be used that week. (A teacher may sign up daily if equipment is still available.) The teachers are to sign for equipment on a prepared chart which is easily accessible. The chart should include daily columns so that a teacher can indicate her name, equipment needed, and time to be used. This will prevent conflicts among staff members over the use of the same pieces of equipment at the same time. The teacher is responsible for the procurement of all equipment.

Few people understand the importance of an efficient elementary school secretary in a school system. Too often teachers, parents, and students fail to realize her basic purposes in being in the office. Her function must be made clear to all concerned. Situations should not be allowed to develop which will impair her efficiency. The importance of policy making with respect to office routines cannot be stressed enough. It is the responsibility of the school administrator to see that practical office routines are established and adhered to by all members of the staff as well as by parents and students.

THE PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT OF THE SCHOOL— ITS EFFECTS ON BEHAVIOR

GEORGE J. MICHEL, DONN L. WADLEY,
AND CLARKE E. SCHILLER

ACCORDING to English and English, environment is the sum of all of the external factors and conditions capable of influencing the organism.[1] It is separated into two broad categories—the psychological and the physical environments. The physical environment is identified by five different elements:

- Sound
- Color
- Heating and ventilation
- Lighting
- Total effect of the environment

A substantial body of research shows that these five elements can affect the behavior, attitudes, and performance of teachers and students in the classroom.

Sound. Loud noises and highly reverberating sounds both inside and outside a classroom can interfere with the activities and the verbal communications of teachers and students. Different sounds have been known to cause errors in manipulative tasks, depending on whether the sound was high pitched or loud and unexpected.[2, 3] In addition, noise from automobiles, trains, airplanes, and even ordinary playground noise, was shown to affect teaching and other classroom activities. On the other hand, improved acoustics in the classroom can improve the verbal communication between the teacher and the students.[4,5] For example, the addition of carpeting—a good acoustical control—to the classrooms and corridors of a school improves teacher-student interaction; it also improves the behavior of students by making them less noisy and less rowdy.[6] Conrad and Gibbons illustrated that carpeting in a classroom has also increased the academic achievement of primary youngsters.[7] One study showed that the addition of background music to certain

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selected areas of a high school actually produced improved student attitudes toward teachers, books, and homework.[8]

Color. Color in the classrooms and other school areas is important because different colors have different effects on behavior. Bright colors excite high emotional reactions while dull colors have a calming effect.[9, 10] Moreover, evidence has shown that bright colors can interfere with certain mental functioning, and some research even showed that various colors disturbed association learning.[11, 12] Therefore, bright colors should be used to stimulate large muscle activity in the areas of the school where physical activities are undertaken, and soft colors and pastels should be used in classrooms where mental activities are of primary importance. The effect of color planning in the school environment on student achievement was demonstrated by Rice, who found that students in color-planned classrooms had a tendency toward higher academic achievement than those in other classroms.[13]

Heating and ventilation. Seasonal temperatures are commonly known to affect the grades achieved by students. Nolan found, for example, that the physical discomfort caused by high summer temperatures contributed to students achieving significantly lower grades in summer than in the winter.[14] Another Canadian study estimated that the most effective working temperatures for children in summer ranged from 66-73°F. In winter, this range was increased to 57-73°F.[15] College students and adults have experienced deteriorated performance on experimental tasks requiring thinking, finger coordination, and typing when the temperature reached 85-95°F.[16, 17] However, a school can overcome these adverse effects on academic and muscle coordination activities by introducing air conditioning into the physical environment. In fact, tests in a government office building indicated that air conditioning increased work production, improved attendance, and reduced the number of errors in work.[18] A study of air conditioning in schools pointed out how these improvements resulted. It showed that air conditioning seemed to: 1) improve the attitudes and work habits of teachers, and 2) improve student behavior and student performance by causing less drowsiness and fatigue.[19]

Lighting. While research on incandescent and flourescent lighting in schools is sparse, early studies demonstrated that the quality of artificial lighting has some influence on school achievement.[20] More recently, school lighting studies have sought to assess the influence of artificial versus natural lighting in classrooms. A case study of two schools, one with natural lighting from windows and the other without windows, indicated that children seem unconcerned with whether their classrooms contain windows or not.[21] It appears that school lighting subtly affects the productivity of school children, but the source of lighting is of little consequence.

Environment. Human judgment, perception, and performance on certain tasks which have been shown to be affected by individual elements of the physical environment can also be swayed by the total effects of all elements of the environment. For example, several studies show that adults' perceptions and judgments of photographs were biased by the type of room in which they were situated.[22, 23] The adults located in a good, clean room made better judgments than did those in a sloppy, disorderly room. Another study supported these findings by indicating that a messy and disorderly room decreased both the quantity and the quality of mental activities carried on in it.[24] It is not yet clear that these findings could directly apply to the learning activities of the classroom; nevertheless, enough information exists to indicate that further research is needed to apply this knowledge to the classroom.

There is little doubt that the physical environment of the school influences the attitudes and work habits of both teachers and students. The major question lies in determining the permanency of these changes. One explanation is suggested in the Hawthorne studies of the Western Electric Company and in the MacDonald study.[19,25] In the Hawthorne studies, improved morale, increased production, and less absenteeism resulted when working conditions were modified. Positive improvements occurred because the worker's attitude toward his work improved, though it was also discovered—in what came to be known as the Hawthorne effect—that the special treatment given workers in an experimental situation resulted in increased output and improved behavior.

The MacDonald study also showed that modifying the school environment by adding air conditioning resulted in less school-fatigue for teachers and students, thereby improving their attitudes. Less school-fatigue meant that teachers and students feel differently and work more diligently. There are still questions about special treatment effects in educational experiments. This, however, should not prevent the application of the school-fatigue principle to the building of schools. Public education has an obligation to provide students with the best possible learning environment according to the best available knowledge.

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ANOTHER PLEA FOR NONGRADING THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

ALFRED L. KOVALCIK

SINCE the advent of the Modern Space Age—with the launching of Sputnik—the educational establishment has received much attention. This attention has come from a variety of sources and has been directed by an even greater variety of people of numerous and sundry backgrounds. Imaginative educators have begun to capitalize on this newfound interest in education, coupling it with the increasing wealth of information being accumulated about the growing and learning processes. These educators are presenting new educational patterns and proposing that new sets of educational attitudes be adopted to complement the new patterns.

Because of this new emphasis, a strengthening and a broadening of the educational program have emerged. Heretofore forgotten children in the neglected circumstances of inner-city decay, along the migratory worker's route, and in financially poor rural districts have become a few of the targets of this new push. Ultimately, all children will be affected in some way by this new wave of interest and thought.

The importance of the individual is being emphasized. Of course, this is nothing new under the educational sun. Conscientious teachers have always been sensitive to the individual child with his unique background and capabilities. Until recently, however, very few of these teachers have been able to plan an instructional program that would allow each child to develop at his own rate. Teachers have been—or are even now—hampered by the graded organization, an artificial administrative device which catalogues children for initial placement by the unreliable factor of age. This graded organization then imposes predetermined requirements that each child must meet before he is allowed to move, annually, from one level to another within it. Sargent Shriver gave impetus to a change in educational thought when he stated that:

> Educational authorities, from the one-room schoolhouse teacher to the head of the board of education in a major city, must stand back and take a good, long, hard look at themselves and the services they provide for their children. They must find ways to discover the special needs of the individual child and ways to meet those needs. No longer can the child be molded to the curriculum. It is time to mold the curriculum to the child.[1]

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For a comprehensive discussion of the nongraded school, see *The Nongraded School*—a reprint of articles from the November 1967 and January 1968 issues of *The National Elementary Principal.*

An organizational construction that is prominent on the educational scene, especially at the elementary level, is the nongraded concept. This concept of organization has been devised to overcome the disadvantages that confront both child and teacher in the graded organizational scheme.

For example, nongrading provides possibilities for individualizing instruction. Under a graded plan, with each class containing a wide variety of ability and interests, teachers are hampered by the inflexibility of the organization to allow each child to progress at his own developmental rate. An instructional group created under the delusion that all seven-year-olds or ten-year-olds or "x"-year-olds are similar in achievement, interests, and future potential will contain these satellite children who orbit about the bulk of a group consisting of those labeled "average." Educators should examine their instructional practices in terms of the purposes and goals that they value for children, as well as in terms of the understanding they have gained through knowledge of how children grow and develop.

One imaginative superintendent in a small Midwestern city school system devised a plan for allowing a child to enter kindergarten when the child became five years old. The superintendent would send a birthday card that congratulated the child on becoming five and would invite him to enter school. Any child, with the exception of those whose birthdays occurred during the summer months, could enter the school program at this time and begin to develop his potentialities at his own rate. The child would progress from one level to the next as he demonstrated that he had achieved the skill and maturity to move on. This superintendent was demonstrating that he believed the school was devised as an instrument to help educate children. This was his program for emphasizing that the purpose of the elementary school is to help every child to be, at the age he is, the best person he is capable of being.[2]

Certainly, one of the most important characteristics of the nongraded plan is that it allows each child to develop to his fullest potential at his own rate. Impossible pressure is not placed upon the slow learner to keep up; nor is there too little stimulus for the talented child. Instruction is geared as much as possible to the needs of each child at the moment. To accomplish this, teachers must employ a wide range of materials and instructional approaches.

Each child is unique because of his inheritance, his past experience, and his present environment. Jerome Bruner points this up vividly while discussing the nature of increasing intellectual capacity:

> . . . mental growth is not a gradual accretion, either of associations or of stimulus-response connections or of means-end readiness or of anything else. It appears to be much more like a staircase with rather sharp risers, more a matter of spurts and rests. The spurts ahead in growth seem to be touched off when certain capacities begin to develop. And some capacities must be matured and nurtured before others can be called into being. The sequence of their appearance is highly constrained. But these steps or stages or spurts or whatever you may choose to call them are *not* very clearly linked to age: some environments can slow the sequence down or bring it to a halt, others move it along faster.[3]

The nongraded plan not only takes into account the uniqueness of each child in its instructional and curricular approach but also in its methods of reporting pupil progress. A conscientious teacher, one who is trying to style and pace his instruction to accommodate the wide variance found within his class, cannot hope to tell each child and his parents what progress he is making when he is confined to using an archaic reporting system. A written report based upon letters, numerals, or checks, even though they are reinforced with a teacher's commentary, is a deficient tool to describe the sophisticated task being attempted in many classrooms. Furthermore, written reporting fails to develop good communication between teacher and parent.

One of the real shortcomings of American public education is that parents have not been made partners in the educational system. The result has often been a psychological wall separating school and home. A teacher who wishes to counteract this development will work for the freedom to devise a reporting scheme that will allow him to describe a child's progress realistically as well as one that will create an avenue of communication between himself and the parents. Thus, the teacher who is striving for professionalism in education is striving for the right to interact intelligently and honestly with his students and their parents. In effect, he is saying that the focus must be kept on what happens in the classroom. These are the real frontiers. Let him be clear in what he is striving to do and confident that what he does is important.

If an educator believes that the abolition of grade barriers frees each child, whatever his ability, to move forward in his learning as rapidly and as smoothly as possible, he will effect a reorganization of the educational framework. This, however, will give rise to an inherent internal problem that must be faced concurrently with any structural reorganization. An educator who wishes to break a child's entrapment in a lockstep pattern of progress will have to examine the central purpose of the elementary school as well as the content of its program. Yesterday's facts have been superseded by today's new knowledge which, in turn, will very likely be obsolete tomorrow. Thus, the educator who wishes to adjust his organizational pattern must construct a program that will allow a child to progress at his own rate as well as one that will equip him to operate in tomorrow's world. Bruner suggests that a curriculum should involve the mastery of skills, which, in turn, leads to the mastery of still more powerful ones and to the establishment of self-reward sequences.[4]

Until such time as the teacher is allowed to consider each child in the light of his own merits, he will lose as a motivational tool the deep-seated desire to be successful that is found within all children. Bruner described this most important factor and how gradedness creates frustration that impairs it within an individual when he wrote the following:

> . . . The will to learn is an intrinsic motive, one that finds both its source and its reward in its own exercise. The will to learn becomes a "problem" only under specialized circumstances like those of a school, where a curriculum is set, students confined, and a path fixed. The problem exists not so much in learning itself, but in the fact that what the school imposes often fails to enlist the natural energies that sustain spontaneous learning—curiosity, a desire for competence, aspiration to emulate a model, and a deep-sensed commitment to the web of social reciprocity.[5]

Nongradedness may be one of the means that can open the door to success for many frustrated children and their teachers. Within the framework of nongradedness, we can style a program that would be meaningful for each child and that would challenge him to develop his talents to the fullest. Yet, in being convinced that nongradedness has worth, the educational leader has taken only the first step. He must follow it with a plan that is compatible with the goals for education that are important to the community in which the school is found. Unfortunately, there is no set prescription to follow in creating this plan, only a description of the organization. Nongrading is a vertical plan of school organization. A vertical pattern of school organization serves to move pupils upward from the time they enter school to the time they leave it.[6] This description, however, gives much latitude within which creative educators can operate. Bruner, again, can be called upon for enlightenment and encouragement. His suggestion for an engaging program is as follows:

> . . . if a curriculum is to be effective in the classroom it must contain different ways of activating children, different ways of presenting sequences, different opportunities for some children to "skip" parts while others work their way through, different ways of putting things. A curriculum, in short, must contain many tracks leading to the same general goal.[7]

The one ultimate goal that all educators should strive to reach is the goal of having each child discover who he is and what he can do. If the child can find worth and satisfaction in his best efforts, then he will feel successful and be content with himself and his world. Nongradedness is the scheme that will allow teachers to help each child realize this goal.

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YOUNG CHILDREN'S IMPRESSIONS OF THE PUPIL-ROLE

EDYTHE MARGOLIN

IN one way or another, our studies of behavior touch frequently on the problems of individuals as they come in contact with various groups of people at different times in their lives. We are impressed with the number and the complexity of transitions that a youngster needs to make when he leaves the family context both before he reaches any educational agency and concurrent with his experiences in one. We are also impressed with the quality of his impressions as he begins to know the non-familial world.

Some groups have more significance than others for a child, but a child's experiences at school are important to him if only because of the time he spends there, the repetitiveness, the routine of his daily behavior, and the consequences of meeting other children his own age. What affects his impressions depends not only upon his unique views—whether they be spontaneous or anticipated—but also upon the kind of environment he generally finds at school. He may work in a frequently structured, methodical type of classroom environment or in one in which the structure is not obvious and varies from day to day. In any case, he is learning about various environments and atmospheres in a non-familial context.

The child's family is usually most important to him because he is with them more than he is with other people during his infancy and pre-elementary school period. As soon as a child meets other people outside the home, be they adults or children, he begins to acquire some facility in certain contacts for adapting his own behavior to the reciprocal needs which arise in interpersonal relationships. When he learns how to enjoy or to avoid certain relationships, he may effectively guard against certain hurts or annoyances and acquire greater satisfactions for himself in his involvement with others. This kind of adaptation provides him with a measure of control over his environment and over the people he will permit to affect his control in any situation that interests him.

The learning of social roles provides knowledge for sensitizing one's self where effective interaction with others is concerned; it also permits a relative facility in actively deciding the various boundaries one will establish in relationships with others. One aspect of this sensitization process includes becoming familiar with the expectations and general patterns of behaving in certain social role sets with others (for example, child to teacher) and imitating some of the observed behaviors of others. Yet, while there are certain types of expected behaviors in roles, there is

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also leeway for interpreting roles so that new behaviors which are idiosyncratic in people become part of roles. Some roles permit greater spontaneity than others. We may observe this in certain contexts where approved behaviors are not preset or explicitly expressed to the child by the adult who is responsible for him. In our cultural setting, people generally know what is acceptable or disapproved. Thus, we learn more about behaviors which fall at either end of a continuum; average or typical behaviors are not as frequently discussed. A wide range of alternative behaviors that will not receive approving or disapproving glances from a teacher or a parent exists, but children find out about these alternative behaviors only *after* they have acted and not before.

Social roles are defined by our culture. Nevertheless, while roles are societally influenced in that they are either accepted or denied, the acting out of those roles—and the immediate effects of such acting out—depends mainly on the way individuals interpret the particular situation within the context of their own values. As a result, interestingly enough, societal consensus is one aspect of considering social roles. Yet, how individual behavior in those roles is accepted depends on the people most immediately and directly involved. This has implications for young children who are learning their social roles in various contexts as they meet each new situation.

School Behavior and Adult Control

Many patterns of behavior observed in the children of our culture are not the result of explicitly instructed behaviors. Particularly in the cases of parents and teachers who are attempting to help children develop self-control, most of the decisions for guiding one's self are left to the child, not to the adult responsible for the child. The point at which the parent or teacher typically admonishes the child occurs after he has acted or "misbehaved," not before. Permissive behavior is partly predicated on the assumption that if children are not "nagged" their usual behavior is not likely to be offensive. A reprimand, if needed, may always be given later. Meanwhile, children may learn to trust their own decisions to some degree because certain adults have given them the opportunity to act on their own judgment.

Although the brevity and small number of discussions dealing directly with parent- or teacher-approved behavior of young children are partly a result of a permissive style of parents and teachers, they minimize the opportunity for children to hear adults verbalize acceptable forms of behavior. The child, therefore, has a generalized vagueness as to what the usual adult expectations are. A study of children who had experienced this kind of indirect exposure to acceptable behavior in the classroom revealed that these children were typically less able to state explicitly the instructions of adults. Kindergarten children in loosely structured classroom settings did not seem to be aware of classroom rules or routines. In highly structured classrooms, children's verbalized knowledge of classroom operations was greater.

A teacher's methods for developing some kind of order so that pupils may know routines and can go from one activity to another without asking the teacher each time may be different from any that the child has experienced at home. If this is the case, it is not difficult to understand the problems a child may have in adapting himself to each situation. How parents treat a child will influence the quality of the child's pupil-type behavior at school. The child's former experience with adult control before he reaches the school setting influences whether he waits unconsciously for a structure similar to the kind which is familiar to him at home or whether he prefers the general classroom flexibility of less structure and more opportunity to move around without teacher permission.

While the child may be concerned about satisfactory relations with his family, he is concerned at school not only with the teacher's approval but also with the approval of his peers. Compounded in these approvals sought by pupils are concepts of competence as well as general mutual fondness. The child at school has several personality perceptions of others with which he must become familiar—with his teacher's feelings about him as an individual and as a competent pupil, and with his classmates' attitudes toward him as an individual and as a competent pupil.

The Role of the Child at Home

In order to compare the pupil role discussed later in this article to the child's earlier learned role at home as son or daughter, we need to describe the home role. Whether a child succeeds in his role performance at home depends on how well the child's behavior matches those personal qualities which may appeal to his parents. These are qualities which may be demonstrated by kindness, affection for the parents, consideration of others, obedience, physical attractiveness, and responsiveness rather than passivity. Emphasis on various types of qualities varies with families as does concern for academic performance or for cultivating talents in aesthetic areas.

A parent's philosophy about life and society may or may not be sensed by a child. Parents may talk about their views in a child's presence or they may not. Attitudes arise and are formulated in planned as well as in unplanned settings, so children sense their parents' unexpressed feelings in the routines of everyday living. In effect, the child may or may not be sure of what his parents hope to see him develop in himself. He may be more aware of what his parents do *not* want him to become. In some families, the subtleties of parental concerns for their children (present or future) and the degree to which parents are aware of these concerns (verbalized or not) preclude adequately clear descriptions of deep underlying or even superficial hopes for their children.

Criteria for "Success" in the Pupil Role

"Success" in the pupil role has its interpersonal and its academic aspects. Both of these aspects are of almost equal importance in their effect on each other in the composite conceptualization of pupil importance.

The interpersonal characteristics are those behaviors which children note as being preferred or rejected among their peers. The academic aspects in the kindergarten and primary grades include: 1) the disciplines that require exacting kinds of answers; 2) physical coordination required in running, kicking, or throwing a ball; and 3) achievement in aesthetic areas involving artistic expression in art, music, and rhythmic movement.

These two areas—one a set of "skills" to learn at school and the other a group of school-content skills—make up important elements of the pupil role which youngsters must master. If they are to learn these skills, they must be aware of expectations related to these skills. Children's knowledge of these skills, however, varies considerably both in terms of the nature of the area and in terms of the teacher's part in knowing the criteria used to judge a child's performance in it. It seems that the wider the range of expression permitted the child in performing a specific activity, the wider the range of diffuse criteria for grading a pupil's performance in that activity. In other words, the narrower the range for correct and absolute answers of right or wrong where a child's performance in a specific discipline or activity is concerned, the clearer it is in the teacher's mind as to what the correct answer is and which bases are used as criteria for grading a child's performance.

If the activities in which children are graded are considered in terms of those two points—the clarity of criteria used by the teacher to grade pupil performance and the degree of leeway for a variety of "right" answers or performances—it becomes simple to see the hierarchy as is shown in the chart below. This chart was developed from data collected in a study of children in kindergarten and in primary grades. The subjects were questioned to test their awareness of criteria for achievement in classroom situations. If their awareness of criteria was expected to help them in knowing what to achieve, we can readily see the gaps in their expectations.

Diffuseness and/or Clarity of Criteria Affecting the Teacher in his Judgment of Pupil Performance*

Type of Activity	Exactness of Response Required of Pupil Performance	Degree and Range of Teacher Subjectivity in Deciding on Grade for Pupil Performance
1. Academic disciplines (mathematics, science)	Optimal	Narrow range of teacher subjectivity in deciding on grade for child's performance
2. Physical coordination	Less Optimal	Wider range—not as specific as above; judgment of what a "good" performance would be is generalized; sometimes good sportsmanship is a criteria
3. Aesthetic expression (painting, sculpturing)	Minimal	Broad, diffuse range of teacher subjectivity affecting teacher's decision for grading pupil performance

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* This has a close relationship to the pupil's knowledge of teacher expectations for performance in the pupil role and his knowledge of which behaviors will be rewarded by a high grade in the role.

While the subjects expressed awareness of some interpersonal skills which are used in the classroom, they were not as fluent in describing school-related performance skills in the disciplines and least clear in aesthetic skills.

Since "success" in the pupil role lies in the performances that are graded eventually by the teacher and since the criteria for activities related to systematically instructed skills—such as reading or mathematics—are quite specific, the teacher is less subjective in judging children's performances. The teacher judges the work according to standards set within each discipline, not according to his own personal standards (a word is spelled correctly, or it is not). On the other hand, the teacher must be more subjective in judging physical kinds of performances, whether in games or in physical handling of brushes in painting. Pupils, therefore, are not sure of the criteria on which they are being graded—partly because their teachers are not sure either. This is not the fault of the teachers. It is generally due to their lack of exposure to this aspect of teaching. Even though they have experienced those activities themselves, it is very difficult to transmit to their pupils the information or kinesthetic aspects they have learned in those experiences.

Where the criteria for activities related to outdoor physical skills involve judgment of various types of pupil performance, a child's performance is generally related to the type of game or activity in which other children are included. His skill is sometimes supplemented or enhanced by other children's skills. Absolute characteristics or specificity are not as important to success in this activity as is accuracy in mathematics. Developmental aspects of the youngster are considered in learning these skills more than they are in learning academic skills.

The area of aesthetic expression carries more subjectivity than any of the other areas in which the teacher grades pupil performance. Children know little about the criteria for achieving in areas of artistic expression. In fact, one wonders how performance is judged and graded by the teacher.

While children are helped to improve learning as their teachers explain subject matter to them along with criteria for achieving high performance in those academic areas of specificity, pupils are not given as great an amount of assistance where criteria for achievement in other areas are concerned. As the subjective aspect of the teacher's judgment becomes greater (as it would in the areas of aesthetic accomplishment), both the teacher and the children seem to be less aware of the elements that make up a "good" art product. Where aesthetic skills are attempted by the children, teachers do not seem to offer specifics for improving. Thus, much of what children do is not in the direction of learning to master skills; rather it is a trial and error process.

Beginning with kindergarten, pupils are not usually aware of criteria used in judging outstanding painting—or in judging qualities which encourage popularity of certain children. We are not recommending that children be reminded constantly of criteria for "success"; we want them to continually explore with various materials and not to be inhibited by nor overly concerned with standards.

As children move into classrooms in the first grade and encounter more direct and systematic instruction in certain subjects, they seem to become more aware of criteria for achievement. They also begin to identify certain characteristics they prefer in the behavior of their peers. When children are asked which peers they think are outstanding in outdoor activities, they name criteria related to skills such as running or throwing a ball a long distance. Where personality characteristics are concerned, the children like those who "let people do what they want."

In the second grade, where participation in reading is an important part of the daily classroom schedule, children seem to be aware of certain characteristics of the best reader. For example, they will often say about the child they have selected as the best, "He knows all the words," "He reads fast," "He's in the high group," or "He doesn't miss words."

Children in the second grade seem to be more aware of school routines. Evidently they have become used to the classroom and to its general organization in terms of what is expected of them. Teachers differ, it is true; generally, however, children may expect that they will work alone part of the time, listen at another time, work again in different ways at other times (such as when they are expected to sing, to write, to paint, or to dance).

In the study referred to, the fact that a few children were mentioned frequently by classmates as being liked by everyone indicates that an explicit kind of group consensus may be starting in the second grade. When children do not "agree" on who is most popular, criteria for achievement of popularity are not sensed by the group. Whether the growth of group consensus may be attributed to the greater amount of time spent in frequent group participation or to the fact that the children are usually accustomed to the school routine by this age is not certain. It is noticeable, however, that children are not as much aware of criteria for achievement in classrooms where activities involving spontaneous self-selected groupings occur more often than total group participation.

This is not a recommendation for doing away with spontaneous self-selected groupings and replacing them with frequent total classroom participation. It is only to say that the kind of success we achieve through one means of classroom system is not going to accomplish simultaneously all other goals we set for children, educationally or otherwise. We need to be aware that certain limitations ultimately exist in our techniques and that we may not claim the achievement of cohesiveness in group techniques when it does not occur. One process may be advantageous in producing behavior in children that supports one or more of our cultural ideals. At the same time, it is important to know that certain techniques may discourage the achievement of other cultural goals.

From the pupils' point of view, we need to try to discover what they think the essence of the pupil role really is. One child, about seven years old, overheard her five-year-old brother complaining to his mother that he had to "sit so-o long" in school. "We never *do* anything." His sister stated in tolerant and matter of fact tones, "Well, that's what you learn when you go to school. You learn to sit and to sit and to sit." We hope these children will not retain this concept of the pupil role.